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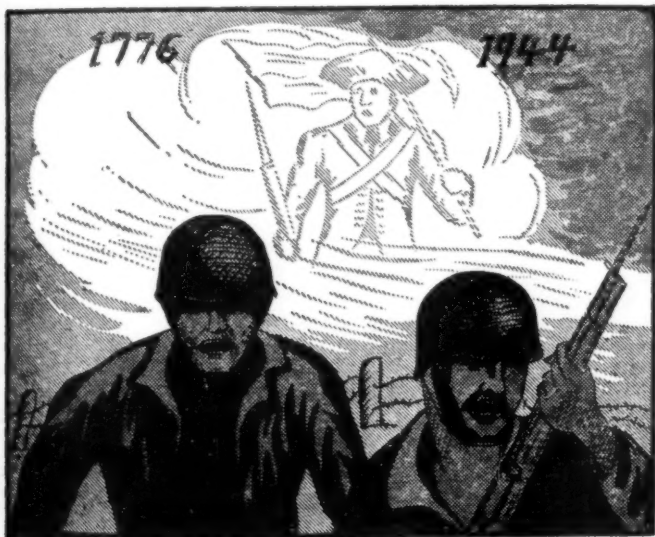
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FEBRUARY 1944

LABOR

Review

VOL. 58 • NO. 2



In this Issue . . . Industrial injuries . . . Store differences
in prices . . . Price trends in 1943 . .
Factors in post-war unemployment

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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The MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW is for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price, 30 cents a copy. Subscription price per year in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, \$3.50; other countries, \$4.75.



OR

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Branch

Chief, Working
Industrial Relations

Chief of Statisticians

Charles Stewart

Mr. John H. G.

Walter G. Klein

Biological De-
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MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

***** + **HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR** + *****

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This Issue in Brief

Differences in retail-price changes among stores.

The changes in prices charged may vary, among stores, as much as 300 or 400 percent. For this reason an individual purchaser's impression of price increases for the commodities bought may differ widely from the average experience that is represented by cost-of-living indexes. Examples of the range in price increases, among the various stores reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, are given in the article on page 239.

Industrial injuries in 1943.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that in 1943 more than 2,400,000 persons were disabled by accidents connected with their work. This was equivalent to a loss of a full year's work for 914,000 persons. Data by industry groups are given on page 242.

Trend of prices and cost of living in 1943.

The price increases recorded in 1943—2 percent in wholesale prices and 3.3 percent in retail prices—were the smallest since 1940. In 1941 wholesale prices increased 17 percent and cost of living, 10 percent. The slowing up during 1942 and 1943 of price advances was primarily the result of the progressive extension of price controls by OPA to nearly every commodity of importance to industry or consumers, the cooperative response of business and the general public to the anti-inflation program, Government subsidies, and rationing. Even after deductions for taxes, war bonds, etc., the rise in earnings was greater than the increase in living costs. Price changes by commodity group from August 1939 to December 1943 and the effects of price control and other factors upon price movements are discussed in the article on page 244.

Factors determining post-war job transfers and unemployment.

The volume of job transfers necessary at the termination of the war, to return the labor force to peacetime pursuits, will depend on the rate of demobilization of the armed forces and of purely war industries, the extent of withdrawals from the labor market of the additional labor recruited to assist in the war effort, and the rate of reconversion to and expansion of civilian-goods production. Post-war employment will depend upon the timing of the above factors, upon the rate of development of public-works programs, and upon whether hostilities cease simultaneously in both theaters of war or whether the Japanese operations continue for some time after the victory over Germany. All of these factors are analyzed in the article on page 269.

Labor conditions in Belgium.

Belgium is a highly industrialized country. It is so densely populated that without an active industry the country could not have maintained its population, as the lands available for agriculture are not extensive enough to provide food for all the Belgian people. During the decade before the war, unemployment was serious except in 1936 and 1937 when there was partial economic recovery. Immediately after the invasion of the country, unemployment was greatly intensified but in the following months it was reduced as a result of partial economic recovery and the transfer to Germany of a growing number of the unemployed. Compulsory labor service for Belgian workers throughout the territory of the Reich was instituted in October 1942, and in August 1943 it was reported that more than 500,000 men and women had been deported. The basic 8-hour day and 48-hour week were established for industry in general, in 1921, and the 40-hour week in dangerous and unhealthful industries in 1936. Under the

German occupation a minimum 8-hour day and a general maximum of 11 hours was fixed for men, although longer hours could be authorized; for women, maximum hours were fixed at 10 per day and 8 on Saturdays. Page 280.

Trend of employment in the aluminum-products industry.

Wartime need for products fabricated from aluminum, because of weight-saving, has resulted in an increase in plant facilities and employment in the aluminum-products industry. The use of aluminum in aircraft has accounted for the greater part of this increased demand. The number of wage earners employed by the industry more than tripled between 1939 and November 1943, and the average workweek rose from less than 40 to almost 48 hours. Hourly earnings increased, in the same period, from an average of 70.1 cents to \$1.05. An analysis of employment trends in the industry and a discussion of the post-war prospects are given in the article on page 299.

Wartime expansion of machine-tool accessories industry.

A fourfold increase in wage earners employed in the machine-tools accessories industry occurred in the 3-year period, 1939-42, the number rising from 21,800 to 93,600. In the same period the average working time was lengthened from 37.1 hours per week to 52.6 hours; peak hours averaging 55.4 per week were attained in February 1942. Page 307.

British proposals for full employment after the war.

Maintenance of "full employment" in Great Britain after the war is nearly universally regarded in that country as the chief long-run problem. The British people are convinced that a reasonable employment level can be maintained and are ready to support the necessary degree of State control, provided the essential citizen liberties are preserved. Different groups advocate varying measures of Government ownership and participation in industry, depending on their economic views. Proposals made by labor, employers, governmental officials, political parties, the press, and research bodies are discussed on page 332.

Earnings in oil-well drilling and production in the Southwest.

In April 1943 the hourly earnings of male workers engaged in the drilling of oil and gas wells and in crude-petroleum production in Louisiana, Texas, and Oklahoma averaged \$1.02. About 8 percent of these workers were in occupations paying \$1.25 or more per hour and 58 percent were in those with earnings averaging \$1.00 or more per hour. Earnings of employees of large companies were consistently higher than those in smaller ones, and the unionized firms (generally the larger ones) paid higher wages than the unorganized companies. Page 360.

Wages and hours of union motortruck drivers.

As of July 1, 1943, the union rates of truck drivers in 75 cities averaged 94.1 cents per hour and those of their helpers 77.1 cents. These average rates represented increases of 4.6 percent and 4.7 percent, respectively, over 1942. Page 382.

Union wage rates of streetcar and bus operators.

The hourly rates of union motormen, conductors, and bus operators in 65 cities, as of July 1, 1943, averaged 90.6 cents, an increase of 5.5 percent over 1942. Page 389.

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR FEBRUARY 1944

Differences in Retail-Price Changes Among Stores¹

THERE are wide differences in prices and price changes for the same product among the different stores, just as there are wide differences in price changes among different products. It is partly for this reason that individual experiences in buying may differ so widely from the typical or average experience. This, in turn, makes difficult the public's understanding and acceptance of general measures of price changes, such as the Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index, which represents average changes in retail prices of goods typically purchased by families with moderate incomes.

In order to show the extent of the variation in changes in prices of the same articles in different stores, the Bureau computed the changes from January 1941 to December 1943 for 11 foods in each food store regularly reporting in Detroit and Pittsburgh. These data showed that the 36-month price increase in one store was more than four or five times as great as in some other stores. For example, in Detroit the increase in prices of apples ranged from 43 percent in one store to 218 percent in another. An even greater variation occurred in the same city in potato prices, for which increases averaged 140 percent from January 1941 to December 1943 for chain and independent stores combined; however, the increase in one store was only 20 percent whereas in another it was 288 percent. Thus, the customer buying potatoes in the first store would receive an impression of a price rise much less than that shown by the Bureau, while the customer of the second store would be convinced that the Bureau was greatly understating the change that had occurred.

Retail prices collected and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for large cities are obtained from many kinds of stores and in many sections of a city. No one store determines the level of the resulting average prices or the average percentage changes over a period of time. It is the averages based on all the reporting stores which are used for computing changes in the cost of living of wage earners and lower-salaried workers. Thus, the experiences of many individuals are combined and the sharp changes for a specific commodity in one or two stores are not evident in the averages because more moderate changes in other stores have a leveling-out effect.

Range of Food-Price Increases

The smallest and the largest percentage increases from January 1941 to December 1943, for selected foods in Pittsburgh and Detroit, are shown in table 1.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Consumers' Prices Division by Ethel D. Hoover.

TABLE 1.—Lowest and Highest Percentages of Increase in Retail Prices of Selected Foods in Detroit and Pittsburgh, January 1941 to December 1943¹

Commodity	Lowest and highest percents of increase in retail prices of specified foods			
	Detroit		Pittsburgh	
	Low	High	Low	High
Flour ²	14	80	15	61
Round steak.....	2	52	0	21
Sliced bacon.....	5	90	10	61
Eggs.....	59	117	44	100
Butter.....	13	56	16	61
Lard.....	46	143	52	140
Apples.....	43	218	67	280
Oranges.....	0	103	33	175
Potatoes.....	20	258	33	167
Canned peaches ²	8	108	41	61
Coffee ²	14	58	21	71

¹ Includes only those stores reporting to the Bureau for both dates.² Changes in brands eliminated.

For many of the foods shown above the percentage changes between the low and high were fairly evenly distributed, whereas for other foods there was some concentration at one or two points. The following array of percent changes for sliced bacon in Detroit during this period shows a concentration of stores near the bottom of the range, while in Pittsburgh the changes are more scattered.

TABLE 2.—Distribution of Reporting Stores in Detroit and Pittsburgh, by Percent of Increase in Price of Sliced Bacon, January 1941 to December 1943¹

Percent of increase	Number of stores reporting		Percent of increase	Number of stores reporting	
	Detroit	Pittsburgh		Detroit	Pittsburgh
5 percent.....	1		31 percent.....	1	1
8 percent.....	1		33 percent.....		2
10 percent.....		1	36 percent.....		1
11 percent.....	1		37 percent.....	1	
14 percent.....		2	40 percent.....		1
17 percent.....	3	1	41 percent.....	1	
18 percent.....	1		43 percent.....		1
20 percent.....	4		45 percent.....		1
21 percent.....		1	47 percent.....	1	
23 percent.....	1		50 percent.....	1	
24 percent.....	1		56 percent.....		1
25 percent.....	3		60 percent.....		1
27 percent.....		2	91 percent.....	1	
29 percent.....		1			

¹ Includes only those stores reporting for both dates.

Range of Clothing-Price Increases

Similar comparisons for clothing in Pittsburgh from December 1940 to December 1943, given in table 3, also show wide differences, but not so great as in the case of food. The Bureau does not obtain prices for clothing in a sufficiently large group of stores to show whether price changes are scattered or concentrated within the range for the city as a whole. It is reasonable to suppose, however, that there would be greater uniformity of change among the various stores, because of the tendency of retailers to sell clothing at customary price

lines and because the number of manufacturers of a particular grade and kind of garment is usually smaller than the number growing or processing foods.

TABLE 3.—Lowest and Highest Percentages of Increase in Retail Prices of Selected Clothing in Pittsburgh, December 1940 to December 1943

Article	Lowest and highest percents of increase in retail prices of selected articles of clothing	
	Low	High
Men's clothing:		
Overcoats, wool and part wool, inexpensive quality.....	9	30
Suits, 3-piece, all-wool, hard-finished worsted:		
Medium quality.....	36	56
Inexpensive quality.....	13	50
Work shirt, cotton chambray, sanforized.....	8	56
Pajamas, broadcloth (carded yarn).....	55	139
Women's clothing:		
Dress coat, fur-trimmed, inexpensive quality.....	63	88
Wool skirt, medium quality.....	49	76
Rayon crepe dress, inexpensive quality.....	58	86
Slip, rayon satin.....	48	76
Girl's clothing:		
Dress coat, inexpensive quality.....	75	151

Industrial Injuries in 1943¹

PRELIMINARY estimates by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that more than 2,400,000 persons were disabled because of work injuries during 1943. This volume of injuries is the highest for any year in the last decade and continues the sharp upward trend which began in 1941.

In a period of acute manpower shortages the time lost from essential production because of these injuries assumes serious proportions. The time actually lost by injured workers during the year is estimated at 56,800,000 man-days. If future time losses resulting from the 18,400 deaths, 1,700 permanent total disabilities, and 108,000 permanent partial impairments are included, the lost time reaches the staggering total of 274,000,000 man-days, or the equivalent of a year's full employment for 914,000 workers. As there was a corresponding accrual of lost effectiveness in 1943 caused by similar injuries in past years, this entire economic loss can be fairly charged against 1943.

The 1943 injury total was about 6 percent greater than that for 1942. Industrial fatalities, however, increased only about 2 percent, and the volume of permanent total disabilities actually declined 5 percent. Permanent partial disabilities are estimated to have increased about 7 percent while temporary total disabilities increased 6.5 percent. This disproportionate increase in temporary and permanent partial disabilities is largely explained by the fact that the most substantial increase in total number of injuries occurred in manufacturing, which has a relatively low ratio of fatalities, whereas the construction industry, which has a relatively high fatality ratio, showed a decided drop in the total number of injuries.

In the manufacturing industries the volume of disabling injuries rose from 635,200 in 1942 to a total of 802,500 in 1943, an increase of 26 percent. Employment and average hours worked in the manufacturing group also increased, but at a much lower rate. As a result the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate (the average number of disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked) rose from 19.9 in 1942 to 21.0 in 1943.

Although the trend of injuries in manufacturing continues upward, it is encouraging that the rate of increase has been slowed down considerably during the last 2 years. In 1941 the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate increased 18.3 percent over 1940. The increase during 1942 was 10 percent and that during 1943 was 5.5 percent. This decelerating rise indicates that accident-prevention measures are beginning to overcome the new hazards which have grown out of the expanding war activities. It is essential, however, that accident-prevention work be strengthened and increased, since the combination of new and untrained personnel with longer working hours and continuous pressure for maximum production greatly increases the accident possibilities in most manufacturing establishments. The upward trend of injuries, however, can be reversed through better safety training and safety-minded supervision.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Hazards Division by Max D. Kossoris and Frank S. McElroy.

The railroads also had a sharp rise in work accidents in 1943. Disabling injuries in this industry increased from 60,800 in 1942 to 85,400 in 1943. Increases in employment, congestion, deterioration of equipment, and the necessity for faster handling of materials account in large part for this 40-percent increase in disabling injuries.

The sharpest decrease in occupational injuries occurred in the construction industry for which the 1943 total is estimated to be 26 percent below that of 1942. This drop is attributed almost entirely to decreased employment because of the sharply curtailed volume of construction. Mining, public utilities, and trade also had substantially fewer disabling work injuries in 1943 than in 1942, owing largely to their curtailed activities and reduced volume of employment.

The largest number of fatalities, 4,800, occurred in agriculture. Manufacturing ranked second with 3,100, construction third, with 2,500, and mining fourth, with 2,000. Manufacturing led in the list of crippling injuries, however, with an estimated 34,400 permanent partial disabilities, fully one-third of the total for all industries.

Estimated Number of Disabling Injuries During 1943, by Industry Groups ¹

Industry group	All disabilities		Deaths		Permanent total disabilities		Permanent partial disabilities		Temporary total disabilities	
	Total	To employees	Total	To employees	Total	To employees	Total	To employees	Total	To employees
All industries.....	2,414,000	1,961,400	18,400	13,400	1,700	1,400	108,000	86,900	2,285,900	1,859,700
Agriculture ²	311,900	75,400	4,800	1,200	400	100	15,600	3,700	291,100	70,400
Mining and quarrying ²	96,400	91,100	2,000	1,900	200	200	4,200	4,000	90,000	85,000
Construction.....	260,100	191,400	2,500	1,800	200	200	12,800	9,400	244,600	180,000
Manufacturing.....	802,500	788,900	3,100	3,100	300	300	34,100	33,500	765,000	752,000
Public utilities.....	19,700	19,700	400	400	(9)	(9)	500	500	18,800	18,800
Trade.....	268,400	215,100	1,100	900	100	100	6,600	5,300	260,600	208,800
Railroads ³	85,400	85,400	1,300	1,300	200	200	5,900	5,900	78,000	78,000
Miscellaneous transportation.....	146,000	125,400	1,300	1,100	100	100	4,100	3,500	140,500	120,700
Services, government, and miscellaneous industries.....	423,600	369,000	1,900	1,700	200	200	24,200	21,100	397,300	346,000

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.

² Based on fragmentary data.

³ Based largely on Bureau of Mines data.

⁴ Less than 50.

⁵ Based largely on Interstate Commerce Commission data.

Trend of Prices and Cost of Living in 1943¹

Summary

DURING the course of the year 1943, wholesale prices rose 2 percent and retail prices to moderate-income consumers 3.3 percent, the smallest increase in any year since 1940. This was an especially good record in view of the sharp rise in income payments, the growing manpower shortage, and shortages of goods available to civilians. The slowing up of the price advance is shown below:

	Percent of increase in—	
	Wholesale prices	Cost of living
December 1939 to December 1940.....	1	1
December 1940 to December 1941.....	17	10
December 1941 to December 1942.....	8	9
December 1942 to December 1943.....	2	3

The sharpest rise came in 1941—before the attack on Pearl Harbor. The slowing up of the price advance in 1942 and 1943 was primarily the result of the progressive extension of price controls by the Office of Price Administration to nearly every commodity of importance to industry or consumers, the cooperative response of business and the general public to the anti-inflation program, the use of Government subsidies for certain foods and industrial commodities, and the establishment of rationing regulations and other supply controls for scarce articles. Also important in keeping prices down—particularly toward the end of 1943—was an improved supply situation for some foods such as meats, eggs, and vegetables, and certain strategic materials such as aluminum and steel.

The growth of OPA price controls is illustrated in table 1. Thus, as of December 1941 only 35 percent of the estimated value of the commodities included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale-price index was under OPA price control; by December 1943 the proportion was 92 percent.

TABLE 1.—Percent of Commodities Included in Bureau of Labor Statistics Index Under OPA Price Control¹

Control status as of—	Percent of commodities covered	
	Wholesale-price index	Cost-of-living index ²
December 31, 1940.....	0	0
December 31, 1941.....	35	0
December 31, 1942.....	83	75
December 31, 1943.....	92	82

¹ Percents are on the basis of estimated average values in exchange for commodities at wholesale in 1940, and for the estimated retail value of the goods and services in the cost-of-living index in September 1940.

² Most of the elements of the cost of living not under OPA control in December 1943, were services and utilities, but many of these, such as railroad, electric, and gas rates—amounting to about 5 percent of all living costs—were under the control of other Federal or State government agencies.

Taking the war period as a whole, prices in primary markets in December 1943 were 37 percent over the pre-war level of August 1939.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Prices and Cost of Living Branch.

During the same period the retail prices of goods and services that American families buy, rose 26 percent. In World War I, from July 1914 to the Armistice in November 1918, wholesale prices rose 103 percent and cost of living, 62 percent.

The rise in 1943 appears particularly small in view of the considerable upward pressure during the year on the level of prices. Income payments to individuals rose 27 billion dollars, from the already high level of 115 billion dollars in 1942 to an estimated 142 billion dollars in 1943. This increase in income was only partly offset by a substantial rise in taxes and savings. Thus, the rise in average weekly earnings in manufacturing industries from January 1941 to October 1943 amounted to 69 percent. When allowance is made for income taxes such as a man with a wife and two children would pay, social-security taxes, and investment in war bonds, the rise in "net spendable" weekly earnings in these industries was 45 percent—still considerably more than the 23-percent advance in retail prices of cost-of-living items during the same period.

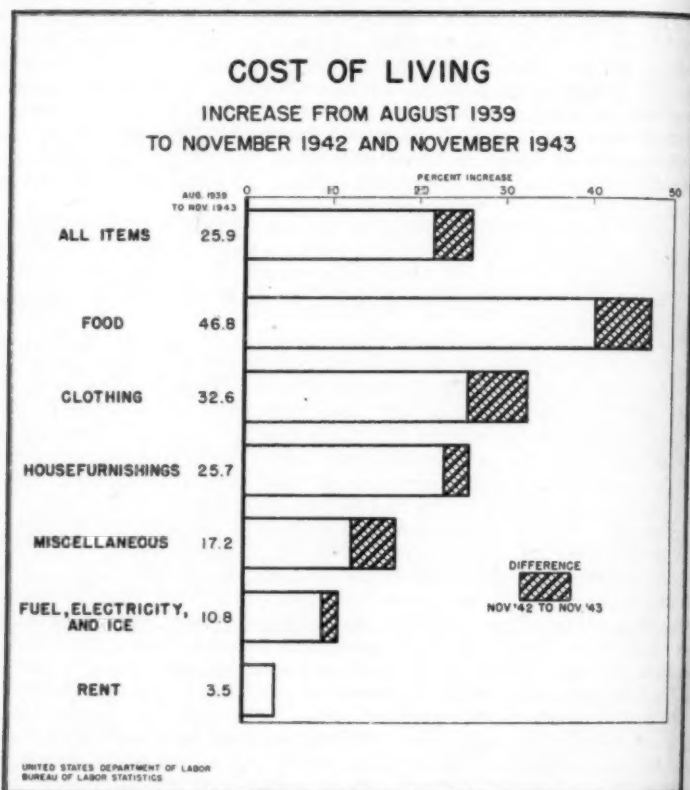
Another factor affecting prices, on the supply side, was the reduction in the physical quantity of civilian goods available as the year went on. The total dollar volume of retail sales remained high in 1943—nearly 10 percent higher in 1943 than in 1942, but there was a sharp reduction in retail inventories.

For industrial commodities the manpower shortage and rising labor costs were responsible for a few significant price advances—for lumber and coal, for example—as well as for some consumer goods such as clothing. Prices of most industrial commodities, with these few exceptions, moved very little during the year. Toward the end of the year the market situation eased for certain essential materials such as steel and aluminum, as the result of improved supply, and limited relaxation in the restrictions on civilian consumption was in prospect. Prices of scrap metals showed a tendency to weaken.

The pressure of rising prices of farm products upon retail food costs remained the principal price problem, as it had been in 1942, although the price advance was much smaller in 1943 than in the two preceding years. Prices of farm products rose 7 percent from December 1942 to December 1943, as against 20 percent during 1942 and 36 percent in 1941. Retail food costs increased between 3 and 4 percent in 1943, as compared with 17 percent in 1942 and 16 percent in 1941.

In retail markets the greatest price rises were for certain foods such as vegetables, eggs, and poultry; autumn and winter clothing; and certain services. Since these goods and services are purchased frequently by nearly everyone, most people had the impression that there was a much greater rise than actually occurred in the general level of retail prices. The impression of rising prices was heightened by the existence of black-market transactions, shortages, and the obvious changes in quality of certain civilian goods. Utility rates and prices of some important foods, such as bread, were stable during the year, and meat prices declined. Rents for family homes and apartments already occupied were generally stable during the year, although there was a slight rise toward the end of the year. Moreover, in crowded cities, families were forced to purchase homes in order to retain dwelling places, because owners found it more profitable to sell than to rent.

Early in the year prices, led by farm products and foods, rose in both wholesale and retail markets, reaching a peak in May, after which they receded. The declines in the summer and autumn were mainly the result of seasonal price reductions for vegetables, subsidy payments for certain foods, and heavy marketing of livestock. At the end of the year wholesale prices and living costs were both about 1 percent below their high points of the spring.



Living Costs

Foods, clothing, and services led the moderate increase of 3.3 percent in living costs in large-cities during 1943. The rise in food prices, because of their great importance in the family budget, accounted for about two-fifths of the total increase in the cost of living during the year; about one-fourth was due to the increase in miscellaneous costs, and about one-fourth to the advance in clothing. It is estimated that 40 percent of the average moderate-income family's total expenditures on goods and services now goes for food, as against about 35 percent in ordinary years.

During the first 5 months of the year the cost of living, and especially retail food costs, advanced rapidly. The rise was 8 percent for food and about 4 percent for living costs as a whole. In the spring and summer, "roll backs" under the food-subsidy program, combined with seasonal declines in vegetable prices, brought about a reduction of 4 percent in food costs in the three summer months (June, July, and August) and of 1.4 percent for the cost of living as a whole. In September and October total living costs showed some increase, with an especially marked rise for clothing as autumn lines came into the market. In November and December there were minor declines in prices for foods and, in December, marked increases for coal and a further advance for clothing. In December 1943 the cost of living as a whole was about one-half of 1 percent below its peak in May 1943, 5.6 percent above September 1942, and 23.4 percent above January 1941 (base date of the "Little Steel" formula).

LIVING COSTS AND WAGES

Although living costs advanced sharply during the war period as a whole, average weekly earnings in manufacturing industries in general advanced even more rapidly than living costs. Table 2 compares increases in living costs with those in gross average weekly earnings of factory workers up to October 1942, the latest month for which the regular reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics on earnings are available. It shows that, whereas living costs rose 26 percent from August 1939 to October 1943, average weekly earnings in all manufacturing industries, before deductions, rose 89 percent; in durable-goods industries, 93 percent; and in nondurable-goods industries, 62 percent.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Increase in Living Costs and Weekly Earnings in Manufacturing

Item	Percent of increase from—		
	December 1942 to October 1943	January 1941 to October 1943	August 1939 to October 1943
Cost of living, all items.....	3.3	23.4	26.2
Average weekly earnings (before deductions)—All manu- facturing industries.....	11.5	68.5	88.9
Durable goods.....	11.2	68.8	93.2
Nondurable goods.....	9.7	54.6	61.6

In comparing changes in living costs with increases in earnings, consideration must be given to the fact that a portion of the increased earnings went to higher income taxes and to war-bond subscriptions. Table 3 shows that after deducting social-security payments, income taxes for a man, wife, and two minor children, and investments of 10 percent of wages in war bonds, net spendable weekly earnings rose 45 percent, from \$26.37 in January 1941 to \$38.23 in October 1943. This is considerably more than the rise of 23 percent in the cost of living. The increase in net spendable income would be smaller in the case of a single individual or a married man with fewer than three dependents whose income taxes are larger; and would be greater for families with more dependents or with more than one wage earner.

TABLE 3.—Average Weekly Earnings in Manufacturing Industries, and "Net Spendable Earnings" After Deductions for Taxes and War-Bond Investments¹

Item	January 1941	October 1943	Percent of income
Gross weekly earnings.....	\$26.64	\$44.90	+68.5
Deductions from earnings.....	.27	6.67	
Social-security tax.....	.37	.45	
Income-tax liability ²	0	1.73	
United States war bonds ³	0	4.49	
Net spendable weekly earnings.....	26.37	38.23	+45.0

¹ A more-detailed discussion of earnings in relation to deductions and cost of living, will be given in a forthcoming article in the Monthly Labor Review.

² Based on family of four—husband, wife not working, and two minor children.

³ 10 percent of income.

It is important to note that these figures refer to average earnings in manufacturing industries only. In many nonmanufacturing industries, the increase in earnings has been smaller.

Taking the population as a whole, income payments to individuals in 1943 amounted to 142 billion dollars, according to estimates of the Department of Commerce. This is fully 100 percent above 1939 and 23 percent above 1942. A part of this increase was absorbed by the rise in taxes and savings. For every dollar of income received by individuals in 1939, 9 cents were saved, 4 cents went for personal taxes, and 87 cents for expenditures. For every dollar received in 1943, 25 cents were saved, 11 cents went for personal taxes, and 64 cents for expenditures. So great was the rise in dollars received, however, that there was still ample room for an increase in the amount of retail sales and for a total increase in consumers' expenditures for all goods and services in 1943 of 10 percent above the record year 1942.

In using the cost-of-living index for large cities as a whole in connection with reports on changes in workers' incomes, it is important to remember that the index is a barometer of retail-price changes, rather than of total family expenditures, and also that any national average summarizes wide geographical differences. Thus, in the fall of 1943, the cost-of-living index for Norfolk was 34 percent above the August 1939 level, whereas the index for Minneapolis had risen only 21.4 percent.

Even within one city there are many families whose living costs have risen more than the average shown by the Bureau's index for that city, because of the stores in which they shop, the goods they buy, and a variety of individual circumstances. Moreover, some families have moved to war production centers, where rents and transportation costs are high, from smaller places, where rents were low and they could walk to work. Changes of this kind are changes in the manner of living, rather than in prices of or rates charged for goods and services usually bought. Wartime shortages have in many cases reduced current family expenditures, since it is now necessary to utilize automobiles and household equipment which would have been replaced in peacetime and therefore total outlays for them are usually smaller, even though maintenance costs are higher. There are many other costs of wartime living which it is impossible to measure statistically. The effect upon living costs of quality changes in consumer goods is one of the factors which cannot be completely measured at the present time. Many goods of the quality purchased by moderate-income city families in the pre-war period are not now available.

CONSUMER-GOODS MARKETS

The small price rise for consumer goods is especially remarkable in view of the great increase in total civilian incomes and the heavy demand for dwindling supplies of goods. The estimated dollar value of retail sales in 1943 was 50 percent above 1939 and 9 percent above 1942. The continued drop in the durable goods available and therefore in retailers' receipts for these goods was more than balanced by increased receipts for the soft-goods lines. Price increases, together with the disappearance of low-price lines and concentration of buying in costlier merchandise, had much to do with the general rise in the total value of transactions during the year. Even though shortages were acute in some lines, the physical volume of goods purchased in 1943 remained high and is estimated by the Department of Commerce as somewhat greater than the volume in 1942. These sales were largely at the expense of heavy stocks accumulated before imposition of numerous limitations on production, and the value of retailers' inventories in October 1943 was 14 percent below the previous October, notwithstanding price advances for existing stocks. For certain commodities—particularly electrical equipment such as washing machines—supplies were completely exhausted at the year's end.

FOOD

The course of prices.—The 3.3-percent rise in retail food prices from December 1942 to December 1943 was small compared with the advance in the 2 previous years, although for a number of foods there were substantial increases, and shortages were widely reported at various times during the year.

In primary markets the general price rise was also relatively small in 1943. The increases in food prices year by year since the war broke out are shown in the following statement.

	Percent of increase in— Retail food prices	Primary market (wholesale) food prices
December 1939 to December 1940-----	2.5	1.7
December 1940 to December 1941-----	16.2	24.8
December 1941 to December 1942-----	17.3	14.7
December 1942 to December 1943-----	3.3	1.2

The sharp rise in food prices beginning in 1941 was primarily due to the record civilian and military demand and to substantially higher prices for farm products. The slowing up of the advance at all levels of distribution in 1943 was chiefly the result of a broad expansion in rationing and price controls and larger supplies of food-stuffs during the latter part of the year.

Prices of farm products, discussed later, rose 85 percent from August 1939 to December 1942 and another 7 percent in 1943. Retail food prices in the 56 large cities regularly included in the Bureau's surveys advanced 47 percent during the war period as a whole—17 percent in 1942 and another 3.3 percent in 1943. Thus, a "market basket" that cost \$10 in the summer of 1939, cost \$14.20 in December 1942 and \$14.65 in December 1943. From city to city there were wide differences in food-price movements, as shown in table 5 (p. 252).

Increases from August 1939 to December 1943 ranged from 39 percent in Fall River to 61 percent in Memphis.

✱ In 1943 the rise in retail food costs in most cities affected a narrow range of products, unlike 1941 and early 1942 when the rise was more general. Prices of fresh fruits and vegetables, fresh fish, and eggs were up substantially. Numerous foods—cereal and bakery products, nonalcoholic beverages, fats and oils, and sugar and sweets—were stable during the year or changed only slightly. Butter and most meats were less expensive at the year's close than they were at the beginning, primarily as the result of the OPA subsidy program.

The rise in all food costs combined, in 1943, was mainly due to a sharp increase of 8 percent in the first 5 months of the year, which was in part canceled by later declines. In June, subsidy payments lowered the average price of butter by about 5 cents per pound. In July prices of beef, veal, pork, and lamb were lowered by subsidy payments at the packers' level. As a result there was a 7-percent decline during the year in the average price of these meats. During the summer there were also seasonal declines in vegetable prices, which, with meats and butter, contributed to a general reduction of 4 percent in retail food prices between May and August. Small increases of 0.1 and 0.6 percent in September and October, respectively, were roughly balanced by a drop of 0.7 in November, and of 0.1 in December and at the end of the year food costs were 4 percent below their high point in May 1943. Price changes by groups are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Percent of Change in Retail Food Costs

Commodity group	Percent of change from—		
	December 1942 to May 1943	May 1943 to December 1943	December 1942 to December 1943
All foods.....	+7.8	-4.1	+3.7
Cereals and bakery products.....	+1.7	+7	+8.7
Meats.....	+3.8	-5.4	-1.6
Beef and veal.....	+2.9	-9.1	-6.2
Pork.....	+2	-10.0	-8.0
Lamb.....	+4.3	-5.3	-1.0
Chickens.....	+0.4	+6	+6.4
Fish, fresh and canned.....	+0.4	+12.3	+12.7
Dairy products.....	+3.5	-2.5	+1.0
Eggs.....	-15.0	+27.4	+12.4
Fruits and vegetables.....	+30.2	-14.2	+16.0
Fresh.....	+36.3	-16.7	+19.6
Canned.....	+2.7	-8	+5.3
Beverages.....	+0	+2.8	+2.8
Fats and oils.....	+0	+2	+2
Sugar and sweets.....	+8	-1.6	+6.4
	-1	-7	-8

The rise in egg prices during the year amounted to over 8 percent and in December 1943 the average retail price was 64 cents per dozen. Egg prices were not placed under progressive seasonal ceilings at wholesale (nor under margin control at retail) until March 1943 after advancing sharply in the summer and fall of the previous year. Substantial increases for fresh fruits and vegetables and fish were in part due to the difficulties of control involved in providing for wide seasonal and geographical differentials. Fish prices were up 23 per-

cent during the year. The establishment of OPA controls in the summer retarded but did not stop this advance.

The rise for fresh fruit and vegetables in 1943 was nearly 14 percent, although maximum prices were fixed at wholesale and at retail for many fruits and vegetables in October 1942 or February 1943. Enforcement was hampered both by the complexity of regulations required and by the fact that ceilings in many cases were not established at the country shipper's level until October 1943. The most important vegetable—white potatoes—sold at 62 cents for 15 pounds on the average in November 1943, as compared with 52 cents in the previous year and 35 cents in November 1939. In the spring of 1943, when potatoes were extremely scarce, a wartime high of 92 cents for 15 pounds was reached for a short period. Prices also reached fantastic heights (especially early in the season) for a few fruits, such as watermelons and peaches. These are on the market only for a limited period and are not included in the Bureau's food-cost index.

The 10-percent rise in poultry prices was in part the result of scarcity of meats. OPA ceilings were established for chickens in the winter of 1942 at levels above the seasonally low prices then prevailing in order to cover parity levels. In early 1943, with shortages of beef and other scarce meats, poultry prices rose sharply to ceiling levels and failed to decline as much as usual in the late summer and fall. There were widespread reports of black markets during the year and considerable scarcity.

Supply and demand.—The civilian demand for more and better food in 1943 was a part of the general picture of rising money incomes which constituted the chief source of general pressure upon prices in all markets. Agricultural food production rose 5 percent from 1942 to 1943, but 25 percent of the Nation's output went to the armed services or for Lend-Lease shipment. The per-capita civilian supply of all foods in 1943 was 3 percent smaller. Mainly for this reason, but also because existing supplies were in some cases inequitably distributed in various cities, shortages were at times severe for such foods as potatoes, butter, and beef, and changes in consumption (such as the increased use of poultry) were inevitable. Rationing and price controls kept to a minimum the sharp price advances which otherwise might have been expected.

Price controls and rationing.—Difficulties of enforcement and the "squeeze" produced by rising farm prices and OPA ceilings established at processor and retail levels remained the chief problems of food-price control during the year. The rigid control of farm prices was impeded on the one hand by the danger of reducing output, on the other by legislation fixing "parity" levels as minima. Meanwhile, price ceilings at the processor and retail levels had been established for the most part in the spring and fall of 1942.

In December 1942 approximately 20 percent of the farm prices included in the Bureau's index were under control by the Office of Price Administration, and by the end of December 1943 this proportion had increased to about 75 percent of the farm prices. Important products brought under control in 1943 were barley, corn, oats, soft wheat, hogs, cattle,² apples, fluid milk, peanuts, seeds, and sweet potatoes. Prices of virtually all of the important foodstuffs, such as those included in the Bureau's index at the wholesale level, are con-

²Controlled indirectly through use of RFC subsidies to slaughterers. Subsidies are changed if prices paid on aggregate purchases over specified periods fall outside specified price ranges.

trolled. Fluid milk, apples, and sweetpotatoes were added to the controlled list in 1943. By the end of December 1943 all prices included in the Bureau's retail food-cost index were under control. Fresh fish, apples, green beans, cabbage, carrots, lettuce, spinach, and sweetpotatoes were brought under OPA price regulation during 1943.

Prices of many farm products continued to rise until the autumn, when supplies of livestock in particular increased and price ceilings were established. Two alternative methods were utilized by the OPA and the War Food Administration for the foods affected by the advance in farm prices: (1) In some cases squeezes at the processors' level were relieved through payment of Government subsidies to processors or farmers. The commodities whose prices were stabilized or lowered by subsidies paid in some manner in 1943 were as follows: Cheddar cheese, butter, milk, flour and bread, sugar, peanut butter, meat, apples, grapefruit, onions, canned fruits and vegetables, dried beans, prunes and raisins, peanuts, soybeans, potatoes, truck crops, bulk shortening, and coffee. (2) For a number of foods OPA maximum prices at wholesale and at retail were adjusted upward in order to compensate for the price rise. This was true for wheat flour, onions, potatoes, macaroni and noodles, turkeys, jams and jellies, dried fruits, a few frozen and canned fruits and vegetables, and apple butter.

TABLE 5.—Percent of Increase in Retail Food Costs, by Cities

City	Percent of Increase from—		City	Percent of Increase from—	
	Dec. 15, 1942, to Dec. 14, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 14, 1943		Dec. 15, 1942, to Dec. 14, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 14, 1943
United States.....	3.3	46.6	South Atlantic:		
New England:			Atlanta.....	5.5	46.4
Boston.....	.2	40.0	Baltimore.....	3.8	50.5
Bridgeport.....	4.0	46.7	Charleston, S. C.....	4.0	41.3
Fall River.....	1.3	39.0	Jacksonville.....	4.3	50.1
Manchester.....	1.1	41.0	Norfolk.....	4.4	53.0
New Haven.....	2.9	46.1	Richmond.....	3.6	47.4
Portland, Maine.....	2.4	40.1	Savannah.....	8.8	54.3
Providence.....	2.4	43.2	Washington, D. C.....	2.4	44.4
Middle Atlantic:			East South Central:		
Buffalo.....	1.5	45.6	Birmingham.....	8.4	58.7
Newark.....	3.6	45.8	Louisville.....	4.7	48.3
New York.....	5.1	45.2	Memphis.....	5.4	48.1
Philadelphia.....	4.3	46.3	Mobile.....	4.8	51.7
Pittsburgh.....	2.7	46.1	West South Central:		
Rochester.....	.4	43.6	Dallas.....	0.8	47.9
Seranton.....	3.4	47.9	Houston.....	2.2	46.4
East North Central:			Little Rock.....	3.4	44.1
Chicago.....	2.9	44.9	New Orleans.....	4.3	52.7
Cincinnati.....	3.3	50.3	Mountain:		
Cleveland.....	5.8	52.4	Butte.....	3.4	48.9
Columbus, Ohio.....	3.7	48.4	Denver.....	4.8	48.6
Detroit.....	1.8	48.1	Salt Lake City.....	2.5	46.4
Indianapolis.....	2.3	48.2	Pacific:		
Milwaukee.....	3.3	45.9	Los Angeles.....	.4	48.5
Peoria.....	4.1	50.7	Portland, Oreg.....	1.7	48.9
Springfield, Ill.....	3.7	49.8	San Francisco.....	2.6	53.2
West North Central:			Seattle.....	1.3	48.4
Kansas City.....	4.3	45.0			
Minneapolis.....	1.8	39.3			
Omaha.....	2.5	43.2			
St. Louis.....	3.6	48.5			
St. Paul.....	2.9	39.8			

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Two other developments in 1943 were of prime importance in the Government's price-control program. The scope of food rationing was extended to almost all important products and served to limit effective demand for scarce foods and to shift consumption from those in short supply, such as butter and beef, to more plentiful commodities such as poultry, liver, and oleomargarine. Foods placed under rationing control in 1943 included meats (not poultry); processed fruits and vegetables, jams, and jellies; butter, fats and oils; evaporated and condensed milk; and cheese.

Coffee and sugar were the only foods rationed in 1942. The supply of both coffee and sugar improved in 1943 and restrictions on coffee were lifted.

The other major development during the year was establishment by OPA of community dollar-and-cent ceilings, based on distributive margins, on eggs, some dry groceries, meats, and some vegetables. This program provided both consumers and retailers in the areas in which it was employed with definite and easily ascertained maximum prices, although the necessity for fixing different ceilings for different classes of stores (based on sales volume) remained a complicating factor.

TEXTILES AND APPAREL

Retail clothing costs to American families rose by about 7 percent during the year and in December 1943 were about one-third above the pre-war level of August 1939. Goods of poorer quality were on the market in many areas, and there was a general disappearance of low-end merchandise, which was in large part responsible for this rise in costs. Shortages of children's clothes and shoes were acute.

Raw-materials and fabric prices were generally stable during the year, after increasing steadily since early 1941, as shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Clothing, and in Prices of Fabrics and Textile Raw Materials

Commodity group	Percent of change from—			
	December 1939 to December 1940	December 1940 to December 1941	December 1941 to December 1942	December 1942 to December 1943
Retail clothing (costs).....	+0.3	+13.0	+9.7	+6.9
Primary-market prices:				
Cotton goods.....	— .4	+43.5	+4.6	+ .4
Raw cotton ¹	—6.6	+74.7	+13.3	+ .5
Woolen and worsted goods.....	—1.4	+15.4	+9.2	— .8
Raw wool ²	+1.3	+6.3	+4.7	— .7
Rayon ³	0	+2.7	0	0

¹ Average for 1½¢ middling cotton in 10 spot markets.

² Weighted average for 6 grades of domestic and 3 grades of foreign wool in the Boston market.

³ Weighted average for acetate and viscose yarn and fiber.

In May 1942 OPA price regulations were expanded to cover nearly the entire textile industry (raw cotton is now the only major product exempt from formal control); thereafter, the price advance for raw materials and fabrics was virtually stopped. Among the raw materials only rayon yarn and fiber have been stable throughout the war period; however, rayon grey goods (not included in the figure for rayon given in the table) advanced substantially in 1941.

The rise in retail clothing costs in 1943 reflected in part the upward adjustments allowed by the OPA in manufacturers' maximum prices to cover higher labor and material costs. Advances in wage rates were approved by the War Labor Board for several groups of clothing workers during the year, among which was a 7-percent rise in basic rates allowed in April in the ladies' garment industry. According to trade journals, "upgrading" and also the tendency to add additional finishing processes to grey goods resulted in some rise in material costs. The other factor in the advance, especially important for women's clothing, was the widespread shift to the manufacture of higher-quality garments from those ordinarily sold in the lower-quality lines. This shift was the result both of manufacturers' inability to produce low-price articles in the face of the higher costs of material and labor, and the tendency to concentrate sales and production in the price ranges yielding the greater margin of profit.

The largest increases in costs for clothing to shoppers in 1943 were for women's wear. Costs of percale wash dresses at retail rose 22 percent during the year; sport coats, 19 percent; slips, 17 percent; and street shoes, 5 percent. Advances for men's suits and coats ranged from 3 to 5 percent; for work trousers, overalls, and work shirts, from 2.5 to 6 percent; and for pajamas, underwear, and business shirts, from 1.5 to 13 percent. Frequently coupled with these advances was a deterioration in quality of products as a result of the use of lower-grade materials or poorer workmanship. Table 7 gives the increases for a few representative types of clothing.

TABLE 7.—Percent of Increase in Cost of Selected Articles of Men's and Women's Clothing

Commodity	Percent of increase from—		Commodity	Percent of increase from—	
	December 1942 to November 1943	December 1939 to November 1943		December 1942 to November 1943	December 1939 to November 1943
Men's clothing:			Women's clothing:		
Overcoats.....	+5.3	+24.5	Untrimmed sport coats.....	+18.9	+32.2
Suits.....	+2.8	+34.3	Percale wash dresses..	+21.7	+42.1
Work trousers.....	+2.6	+40.2	Slips.....	+17.1	+30.6
Business shirts.....	+5.7	+33.6	Shoes, street.....	+4.7	+18.0
Overalls.....	+4.6	+50.4	Hats, wool felt.....	+8.4	+28.1

The dollar value of clothing sales to civilians in 1943 was about 20 percent above 1942, despite heavy Army and Navy requirements for materials and demands upon productive equipment of the textile industry. This rise reflected not only some increases in prices for goods of given quality, but also greater concentration on better-grade apparel. Many types of clothing were scarce, chiefly children's clothes, better-grade cotton goods, and, of course, products using silk, rubber, and nylon. On the other hand, wool was plentiful, and almost all restrictions on its use by civilians were dropped toward the year's end.

Shoes.—In the case of shoes, even more than of clothing, the dropping of lower-price lines raised costs to consumers substantially. This trend was accentuated by increased purchases of high-quality shoes, in part as a result of rationing and in part as a result of in-

creased incomes. Manufacturers' prices for shoes of about the same type were in most cases stable during the year, as were prices of leather and hides and skins. The rise in costs at retail in 1943—primarily because of the change from lower- to higher-priced grades purchased—amounted to 4 percent for men's street shoes, 10 percent for work shoes, and 5 percent for women's and children's shoes. Although consumers were eager to buy the more durable shoes, widespread quality deterioration resulted automatically from the fact that the best grades of leather have for some time been reserved for military use. Conservation measures in force during the year limited the variety and types of shoes available.

Changes in retail and manufacturers' prices for shoes and in quotations for leather and hides and skins are summarized in table 8.

TABLE 8.—Percent of Change in Retail Cost of Shoes and Wholesale Prices of Shoes, Hides and Skins, and Leather

Commodity	Percent of change from—		Commodity	Percent of change from—	
	December 1942 to December 1943	August 1939 to December 1943		December 1942 to December 1943	August 1939 to December 1943
Retail costs ¹ :			Wholesale prices:		
Men's street shoes.....	+3.6	+32.9	Hides and skins.....	-3.8	+44.6
Men's work shoes.....	+10.1	+45.0	Leather.....	0	+20.6
Women's shoes.....	+4.9	+19.6	Shoes.....	0	+25.4

¹ Percent of change to November 1943.

The 3.8-percent decline for hides and skins in 1943 was due to a reduction in sheepskin prices following the withdrawal in September of allocation restrictions which had previously turned over nearly the entire output of shearlings to the Army.

HOUSEFURNISHINGS AND EQUIPMENT

There was little change in 1943 in total costs to consumers of new housefurnishings and equipment still available in the market. The average rise for the year was about 3½ percent, and in December 1943 costs at retail were 27 percent above their pre-war level in the summer of 1939. Shortages of housefurnishings and equipment were probably more severe than those of any other important group of consumer goods, with the exception of automobiles and tires and tubes. Changes in retail costs of a few of the more important furnishings are shown in the accompanying tabulation.

	Percent of increase from—	
	December 1942 to November 1943	June 1939 to November 1943
Wool rugs.....	+0.9	+30.5
Bedroom suites.....	+1.3	+29.6
Mattresses.....	+4.7	+31.9
Sheets.....	+ .7	+53.2
Cooking stoves.....	+2.6	+28.5
Dinnerware.....	¹ + .8	¹ +23.4
Glassware.....	0	¹ +6.7

¹ Change to September 1943.

By WPB order, the number of furniture patterns produced was cut by nearly 70 percent in 1943 and, as in the case of clothing, there was a fairly widespread disappearance of lower-priced lines for many types of housefurnishings. Higher civilian incomes have resulted in increasing the demand for the better grades, while manufacturers in turn have had a tendency to retain in production their most profitable articles and have dropped some of the lower-quality goods which were formerly volume sellers.

The few price increases at retail for some articles of less importance, such as brooms and ice refrigerators, were due to upward adjustments in OPA ceilings to allow for higher production costs. The market for second-hand housefurnishings, however, was lively, and high prices for these goods have been widely reported, although they are not included in any official index.

Rising costs in the wood household furniture industry resulted in December 1943 in a 5-percent upward adjustment in manufacturers' maximum prices by the OPA. Since ceilings were initially established in this industry, labor and material costs have advanced considerably. However, the extent to which the December price increase will be passed on to retailers has not yet been determined.

Although the value of retail sales of almost all other lines rose substantially during the year, in October the dollar volume of retail sales of housefurnishings was 16 percent below the level of the same month in 1942. Mechanical refrigerators, table radios, and washing machines were completely off the market, while the small stocks of vacuum cleaners and sewing machines still in the hands of manufacturers were distributed to retailers on an allotment basis. By order of the War Production Board, the use of wood in the furniture industry was cut to 60 percent of that consumed in 1941 and 1942. Better-type textile housefurnishings, such as all-wool Axminster rugs and cotton marquisette curtains, were generally unavailable. Coupled with these shortages were numerous quality changes attributable mainly to scarcity of materials and the necessity for substitutions.

Illustrative of the many construction changes in goods currently on the market are the use of paper instead of jute as backing for rugs, the use of plastic or wooden pulls to replace exterior hardware, the increased use of glued blocks and dowels to reduce the required quantity of nails and screws used in furniture, wooden hinges to replace metal hinges, blended wool and rayon rugs to replace all-wool rugs, lightweight metal "shoes" or "gliders" for casters, and the simplification or partial elimination of inner-drawer partitions and dust-proofing. Most of these changes resulted directly or indirectly from WPB orders.

FUEL, ELECTRICITY, AND ICE

Coal prices to householders in 1943 rose between 6 and 12 percent, while at wholesale bituminous-coal prices rose almost 6 percent and anthracite more than 10 percent. Fuel-oil prices at retail rose 4 percent. Domestic rates for electricity and gas declined slightly, with reductions reported in a few cities. As a group, prices of fuel, electricity, and ice to the householder rose 3.0 percent in 1943 and in December were 12.3 percent above August 1939.

Changes during the year and since 1939 are summarized in table 9.

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TABLE 9.—Percent of Change in Retail and Wholesale Prices of Fuel and Lighting Materials

Commodity	Percent of change from—		Commodity	Percent of change from—	
	December 1942 to December 1943	June 1939 to December 1943		December 1942 to December 1943	August 1939 to December 1943
Retail prices:			Wholesale prices:		
Bituminous coal.....	+6.2	+21.1	Bituminous coal ¹	+5.7	+23.8
Anthracite.....	+11.6	+32.2	Anthracite ²	+10.2	+31.8
Fuel oil.....	+3.9	+33.3	Coke.....	+2.0	+19.5
Electricity.....	—4	—3.2	Fuel oil, No. 2 (household) ³	0	+9.1
Gas.....	—1.7	¹ —3.8			

¹ Percentage change computed from December 1939.² Average of sales agents' prices, on tracks, destination.³ F. a. b. Oklahoma refinery.

Higher prices for coal in 1943 were authorized by the Office of Price Administration to take account of the estimated effects of wage changes on the unit cost of coal. The first important price rise came in January, following amendments to OPA regulations affecting prices of anthracite and subsequently of bituminous in various districts, in recognition of the agreement between operators and the men to adopt the 6-day week. In many mines the actual change to a 6-day week was delayed for some time. Allowance was also made by the OPA for certain higher material costs affecting coal output. From December 1942 to March 1943, average bituminous-coal prices at wholesale in 16 cities rose 2.5 percent; anthracite in 9 cities, 4 percent; and coke at 4 producing areas, 0.2 percent.

The second substantial price advance followed Government approval of an increase in daily wages for miners in November. This advance had not yet been fully reflected in wholesale prices reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in December, but estimates of its effect are summarized in table 10.

TABLE 10.—Estimated Increases in Wholesale Prices of Coal ¹

Kind of coal	Price per net ton		Percent of increase of estimate over October 1943
	October 1943	Estimate, including effect of OPA ceiling adjustments of November 1943	
Bituminous coal:			
Mine run.....	\$5.06	\$5.31	4.9
Prepared sizes.....	5.33	5.53	3.8
Screenings.....	4.22	4.33	2.6
Anthracite: Chestnut.....	10.83	11.53	6.5

¹ Average sales agents' prices, on tracks, destination.

The shortage of coal in 1943, especially anthracite, was attributable primarily to the miners' strike, but was aggravated by shipping difficulties and by the fact that many industrial plants and homes had in recent months converted from fuel oil to coal, thus requiring larger supplies. In some areas, especially New England, it was necessary for householders to use bituminous coal in place of anthra-

cite. The rate of output was increasing at the end of the year, and total production in 1943 was expected to be slightly more than in 1942, while demand was considerably greater.

Household fuel-oil prices in primary markets were generally stable in 1943, but slight increases were allowed at retail to compensate distributors for additional expenses resulting from the rationing program. The clerical work involved in handling ration coupons and the need under this program for making deliveries in smaller quantities than usual were given as one of the reasons for an advance of 4 percent in the cost of fuel oil to household consumers in large cities. OPA adjustments were made to allow for these higher costs.

The decline in average gas and electricity rates for household use resulted from reductions for gas in San Francisco, Atlanta, Houston, Chicago, and Minneapolis, and for electricity in Washington, D. C., Memphis, Atlanta, Mobile, and Los Angeles. The only increases in costs reported in the 34 cities included in the Bureau's cost-of-living index were slight rises for electricity in New York City and for manufactured gas in some of the New England cities to cover higher costs of the fuels required for their production.

HOUSING

Rents for family homes and apartments in 34 large cities regularly priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for its cost-of-living index were little changed up to December 1943. There were net increases and net decreases, but no changes large enough to affect the general level appreciably. However, there was a trend toward higher rents, to compensate for higher costs of operation, as the year closed. There is evidence, for example, that landlords are now requesting the Office of Price Administration to allow upward adjustments in rents, whereas in the early stage of rent control tenants were active in requesting reductions. Shortages of vacant homes continued to be the most important housing problem, especially in war production centers, and sales of houses formerly rented were increasing.

The largest rent rise in any city during the year was 1.7 percent reported for Birmingham, Ala. The largest decreases—0.9 and 1.0 percent—were in Richmond, Va., and Mobile, Ala., respectively. The stability of housing costs during the year was in keeping with the record since the spring of 1942 when OPA control was initially established and rents were "rolled back" in many areas to levels prevailing at earlier dates in 1942 and 1941. In December 1943, rents in these large cities on the average were nearly 2 percent below May 1942 and only 3.6 percent above the level of August 1939.

By the end of 1943 the scope of OPA rent control had become virtually complete for urban areas and war production centers in the United States. In December 1942 rent control was effective for areas populated by approximately 70 million persons; in December 1943 the areas under control accounted for 87 million persons. The only large cities exempted were a few such as Scranton, in which there has been little tendency for rents to increase.

The effectiveness of OPA control is particularly notable in view of the shortage of houses for rent, especially in war production centers. The total of new construction of residential buildings in 1943 was less than 70 percent of the total in 1942 and was smaller than in any year

since 1937. New construction during the year was started on 343,000 dwelling units, of which nearly half were financed by public funds, and in all cases was limited by the National Housing Agency to areas characterized by severe housing shortages.

The "sellers' market" characteristic of most war production centers has brought with it a variety of practices for indirectly increasing the actual rent of houses and apartments. Bureau of Labor Statistics field agents report such practices as discontinuance of redecoration and other services formerly included in the rent, excessive charges for the addition of furniture to a unit, and transferring rent payments from a monthly to a weekly basis. The Bureau is usually unable to reflect the first type of change in its rent index, but does account for the latter types of increases. Rent costs in war production centers have also been raised by the tendency for new units to be brought on the market at a level exceeding that prevailing under the OPA freeze for comparable homes and apartments.

Another serious repercussion of the scarcity of rental units has been the considerably higher charges made for room and board. Such rates are not included in the cost-of-living index, which reflects costs for housekeeping dwellings for families, but they are occasionally reported by the Bureau's agents in some cities. Comparing the prices with those charged in 1942, room-rate increases ranged from 10 percent in Hartford, Conn., to as much as 33 percent in Huntsville, Ala., with the majority of cities reporting increases from 20 to 25 percent. In nearly all areas there has been a tendency toward the elimination of board, owing to the high cost of food and to rationing restrictions.

Although, on the average, rents for family homes and apartments were stable, analysis of the Bureau's data shows a moderate increase for units renting for less than \$30 per month, balanced by some decrease for homes renting for \$50 or more. In 21 cities there was a rise in the rent bill for the lower-priced homes and apartments as against increases in only 12 cities for the higher-cost dwelling units. In only 5 cities were there declines for the lower-cost homes and apartments, compared with declines in 17 cities for the higher-cost group.

A substantial increase in sales of homes formerly rented is generally reported in the cities surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for rental data. This increase is in part caused by the fact that many families have been forced to purchase the homes they rented in order to retain dwellings in crowded areas. In addition, the serious shortage of desirable rental units in a majority of the large cities has forced newcomers to buy dwellings which the owner finds more profitable to sell than to rent. The rise in the number of owner-occupied homes in 1943 resulted in a reduction of 8 percent in the number of units ordinarily offered for rent in Memphis, Tenn. Similar reductions of from 4 to 6 percent occurred in Cincinnati, Ohio; Seattle, Wash.; Mobile, Ala.; Denver, Colo.; Jacksonville, Fla.; Los Angeles, Calif.; Minneapolis, Minn.; and Portland, Oreg.

MISCELLANEOUS GOODS AND SERVICES

Costs of miscellaneous goods and services to consumers rose almost 5 percent during 1943 to a level about 18 percent above August 1939. The sharpest increases during the year were for services which were

extremely scarce, in most cases because of the manpower shortage. The following statement summarizes these advances. Most services—laundry and shoe repairs are among the important exceptions—are exempt from OPA control.

	Percent of change in retail cost from—	
	December 1942 to November 1943	June 1939 to November 1943
Streetcar fares.....	-0.2	+1.1
Physician, office visit.....	+7.6	+11.1
Gasoline.....	+7	+11.5
Newspaper, delivered.....	+8.5	+20.0
Newspaper, on street.....	+3.0	+12.0
Auto repairs.....	+1.5	+15.4
Cigarettes.....	+1.1	+17.8
Laundry service.....	+7.0	+18.1
Motion-picture admissions, adults.....	+9.8	+28.4
Haircuts, men's.....	+15.6	+38.2
Beauty-shop services.....	+22.8	+48.3

Medical care.—Charges for medical services including services of physicians, dentists, nurses and hospitals, advanced 6 percent during the year and by November 1943 were 11 percent above the pre-war level, reflecting principally the higher fees charged by physicians and the increases in hospitalization costs. A few of the commonly used drugs showed small advances, but most of them remained unchanged in price.

Personal care.—Charges for beauty- and barber-shop services climbed steadily during 1943 as a result of higher material costs and the growing shortage of labor. Men's haircuts (not subject to price control) were costing 75 cents in many cities at the end of the year, as compared to the pre-war rate of 50 cents or less, and in some cities had gone to \$1. Women's haircuts and permanent waves advanced 13 percent and 21 percent, respectively, in cost during 1943, and by the end of the year charges for these services were more than 35 percent higher than in the summer of 1939. There was little change in the cost of toiletries.

Household operation.—The cost of domestic service rose appreciably, with the average cost of daily houseworkers advancing about 45 percent during the year and over 90 percent since the beginning of the war in Europe. All domestic-service placement agencies reported great difficulty in supplying the increased demand for household help. Substantial increases in charges for laundry services also occurred under adjustments made locally by OPA, and in addition, various economies were effected in laundry operation which ranged from discontinuance of delivery service to the elimination of some lower-priced bundle services. Household supplies, including laundry soap, kitchen matches, and cleaning powder, showed smaller increases in cost during 1943, in most cases advancing less than 5 percent.

Transportation and recreation.—There was a general increase in the cost of recreation and sundries during the year. Motion-picture admissions for adults, for example, rose 10 percent; the cost of daily newspapers sold on the street rose 3 percent; and popular brands of cigarettes, chiefly as the result of increases in sales taxes in some cities, rose 1 percent during the year. The cost of public transportation and automobile operation and repairs changed very little in 1943.

Farm Products

The advance in primary-market prices for farm products throughout the war period has been substantially greater than that for any other group of commodities, both because of their low level in the summer of 1939 and because of the great wartime increase in demand. At the end of 1942 they were more than 85 percent above their low pre-war level of August 1939. In the first 6 months of 1943 they continued rising and in June reached the highest point since October 1920, but receded slightly through the rest of the year. In December 1943 market prices for farm products were 7 percent above December of the previous year.

The rise in 1943, except for grains, was materially less than in 1941 and 1942 (table 11), in part because of the extension in OPA price and rationing controls and in part because of heavy marketing of livestock late in the year. As of December 1942, 80 percent of all agricultural commodities included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics index were exempt from OPA price control. As of December 1943 this figure had been cut to 26 percent. The commodities brought under control during the year are listed on page 251. Those commodities in the Bureau of Labor Statistics farm-products index still exempt from OPA regulation at the year's end included rye, sheep, cotton, hay, and certain types of tobacco.

TABLE 11.—Percent of Change in Wholesale Prices of Farm Products

Commodity group	Percent of change from—			
	December 1939 to December 1940	December 1940 to December 1941	December 1941 to December 1942	December 1942 to December 1943
Farm products.....	+3.1	+35.9	+20.2	+7.0
Grains.....	-6.4	+35.8	+10.7	+27.3
Livestock and poultry.....	+13.9	+34.0	+27.2	-3.6
Other farm products ¹	-0.4	+37.2	+18.2	+9.2

¹ Including fresh fruits and vegetables, cotton, wool, eggs, fluid milk, hay, hops, seeds, tobacco and peanuts.

The sharpest price increases in 1943 were for grains and fresh fruits and vegetables (included in the above table in "other farm products"). The 27-percent rise for grains during the year affected all commodities in this group. Thus, wheat (No. 2, hard, winter), Kansas City, in December 1943 sold for \$1.63 per bushel, as compared with \$1.30 in December 1942 and \$1.21 in December 1941. This rise led to an upward revision in maximum prices for wheat flour in January 1943, and in maximum prices for pies, pastries, doughnuts, and certain other bakery products in February. Bread prices have thus far been unchanged on the average, with the use of subsidy payments to flour millers to keep down the cost of flour to bakers.

By January 1944 all grain prices except rye were under OPA control. Regulation at an earlier date was not possible because prices in most cases remained below the "parity" level established as a minimum for farm products by Congress. Moreover, since "parity" levels vary with changes in farmers' expenses, it has been necessary in some

cases to revise upward the initial OPA ceilings. Thus, ceilings for corn were set in January 1943 and were increased in April by 5 percent and again in December by 8 percent. The latter increase was complicated by the relationship of feed prices to hog prices and also to the prices of dairy products. Maximum prices for soft wheat were set in November 1943 and for hard wheat in January 1944, but those for soft wheat were later raised by 4 percent.

The other important price increases for farm products in 1943 were for eggs (up 2.6 percent in the Chicago market from December 1942 to December 1943), fresh fruits and vegetables, hay, seeds and tobacco. Eggs were brought under OPA control in October 1942 and fruits and vegetables by a series of orders issued at various dates in late 1942 and in 1943. Price movements for these commodities were discussed in the section on Food (page 249). Increases for hay, exempt from OPA controls, ranged from 32 to 72 percent during the year, and increases for seeds, controlled late in 1943, from 15 to 56 percent. Although prices of nearly all cigar leaf tobacco are now under OPA regulation, increases for the types not under OPA control resulted in an average advance of 13 percent.

Prices of cotton, wool, fluid milk, and most other farm products were fairly stable during the year. A record marketing of steers, cows, sheep, and hogs in the fall and winter resulted in a reverse of the previous sharp rise for these commodities and brought the average price of livestock down to a point nearly 4 percent below that prevailing a year ago. Thus, hogs (200 to 220 pounds, Chicago) sold for \$13.75 in December 1943, compared with \$14.00 in December 1942, and a peak for this war of \$15.85 in March 1943; the price in December 1940 was \$6.38 and in December 1939, \$5.61.

In general, farm prices were at a low level before the outbreak of war in the summer of 1939. Their advance since that date has materially improved the farmers' situation. In August 1939 the "parity" ratio—that is, the ratio between prices received by farmers and those paid by farmers (plus interest and taxes) in terms of receipts and payments in 1910–14—was about 71, indicating the relatively low level of farm prices compared to the relationship prevailing in the years 1910–14. By the fall of 1941 this ratio had reached 100, indicating that the 1910–14 relationship had been restored. By November 1943 the position of the farmers had improved even further and the parity ratio was 115.

Agricultural output, stimulated by both price rises and Government subsidies, has also increased substantially. The rise from 1939 to 1943 was 20 percent and from 1942 to 1943 2½ percent. Cash farm income—the net result of the quantity of agricultural products marketed and the prices received, plus Government payments—reached an all-time high, in 1943, of 20 billion dollars.

Industrial Commodity Markets

Prices of industrial commodities in general continued the record of stability which prevailed in these markets since early 1942. In no major industrial commodity group was the average rise in 1943 greater than 3½ percent. Price changes by years are shown in table 12.

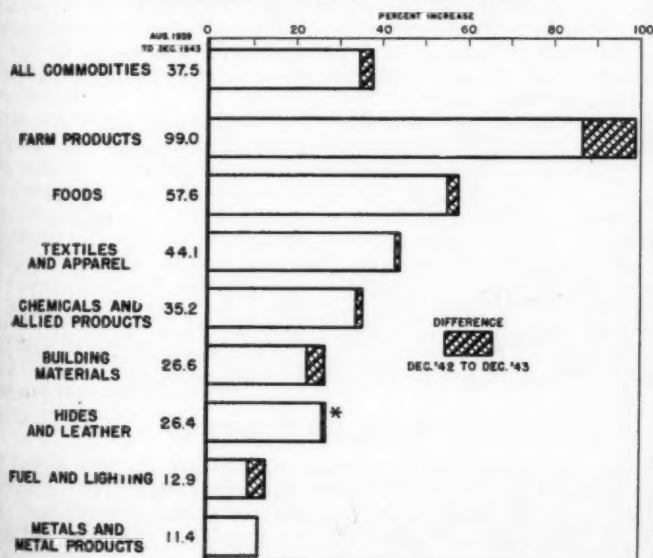
TABLE 12.—Percent of Change in Wholesale Prices of Industrial Goods

Commodity group	Percent of change from—			
	December 1939 to December 1940	December 1940 to December 1941	December 1941 to December 1942	December 1942 to December 1943
Fuel and lighting.....	-1.5	+9.3	+1.0	+3.7
Metals and metal products.....	+1.7	+5.8	+5	0.
Building materials.....	+6.8	+8.6	+2.0	+3.1
Chemicals and allied products.....	0.	+17.5	+9.0	+9
Miscellaneous commodities.....	-1	+13.3	+3.3	+3.1

During the war period as a whole, price advances for industrial commodities have been relatively moderate, particularly when compared with World War I. Thus, increases between August 1939 and December 1943 amounted to 35 percent for chemicals and allied products and 11 percent for metals and metal products. From July 1914 to November 1918 the advances were 129 and 81 percent, respectively. These differences are due in part to the growth in

PRICES IN WHOLESALE MARKETS

INCREASE FROM AUGUST 1939
TO DECEMBER 1942 AND DECEMBER 1943



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

industrial capacity and in technological equipment and productivity which occurred in the interval between the two wars. Of prime importance, however, is the fact that price and supply controls were established for strategic materials at an early date in the present war and business as a rule cooperated in the informal controls initially employed in 1940 and 1941. The progress of OPA price controls for industrial commodities is shown in table 13.

TABLE 13.—Percent of Industrial Commodities Included in Bureau of Labor Statistics Wholesale-Price Index Under OPA Price Control¹

Commodity group	Percent of commodities covered		
	December 31, 1941	December 31, 1942	December 31, 1943
Fuel and lighting ²	51.3	78.6	78.6
Metals and metal products.....	85.5	100.0	100.0
Building materials.....	36.4	97.3	98.1
Chemicals and allied products.....	19.0	99.6	99.6
Miscellaneous commodities.....	57.6	99.6	100.0

¹ None were controlled by law in December 1940. Percentages in this table are on the basis of the estimated average value in exchange in 1940.

² Items still uncontrolled by OPA are electricity and gas rates, which are regulated by State or municipal agencies.

Stability in industrial markets was achieved despite the strains of full economic mobilization for war. In late 1943 production appeared to be approaching its wartime peak and in October the level of industrial output, as measured by the Federal Reserve Board index, was 14 percent above the previous year and 133 percent above its pre-war level. However, Government expenditures for military purposes at the year's end also appeared to be leveling off, and for a few materials (such as aluminum and steel, already noted) the supply situation was considerably improved.

In 1943 the chief price increases were for lumber, coal, boxboard and newsprint, fertilizers, and some petroleum products. Higher wages were the main reason for these advances, but there were also added expenses in 1943 owing to the use of less-skilled labor because of the manpower shortage and the use of more-expensive means of transportation. In the production of nonferrous metals the working of high-cost mines and other cost increases resulted during the year in additional payments of "premium" prices by the Metals Reserve Co.—a type of subsidy designed to meet the higher cost of marginal output and hold market prices stable. Subsidies were employed also to absorb some of the increased costs of transportation for coal, petroleum, Chilean nitrates, and certain imported metals.

METALS AND MACHINERY

Prices for metals and machinery throughout the war period have been among the most stable in the economy and, in 1943, quotations remained for the most part unchanged. Changes in producers' prices since August 1939 and since December 1942 are summarized in the accompanying statement.

	Percent of change from—	
	December 1942 to December 1943	August 1939 to December 1943
Metals and metal products-----	0	+11.4
Agricultural implements-----	0	+3.6
Iron and steel-----	-0.1	+2.1
Nonferrous metals-----	0	+15.3
Plumbing and heating-----	+1.5	+15.8

The outstanding development of the year, as in 1942, was the tremendous expansion achieved in production. There were, however, two market tendencies worth noting.

On the one hand, the improved supply situation in primary metals resulted in a few price reductions late in 1943, principally, but not exclusively, for scrap metals. Some types of steel scrap—machine turnings, mixed borings and turnings, and auto scrap—were lower by \$1 per ton. In June, ceiling prices for aluminum scrap were reduced 1 cent per pound, and actual market prices at the end of the year were lower than the ceilings. Reinforcing bars rolled from rail steel recently sold at \$2 per ton below the ceiling levels, because of improved supply.

On the other hand, for some products the pressure of production costs continued upward. As a result of higher labor costs in foundries, the OPA granted relief from established maxima to numerous producers of gray-iron castings. The average advance for the industry as a whole was 3 percent. Some minor advances in prices of heating equipment were also allowed by the OPA.

The most important indication of rising costs, however, was in the nonferrous-metal industries. In order to maintain production at high levels, premium prices ranging from 33 to 100 percent above market prices are paid by the Metals Reserve Co. to certain producers of copper, lead, and zinc for high-cost output. Through this procedure—in effect a Government subsidy—general market prices were kept stable. The following tabulation shows the estimated percent of nonferrous-metal production on which the Metals Reserve Co. paid premium prices in 1942 and 1943.

	1942	1943
Copper-----	5	21
Lead-----	13	31
Zinc-----	29	61

In 1942 the estimated proportion of total zinc output sold at the premium prices was 29 percent; in 1943 it was 61 percent. The difference between the 2 years reflects the rising cost of output. At the year's end the proportion of output produced at these higher costs was mounting sharply.

BUILDING MATERIALS

Building-material prices at wholesale rose by an average of 3 percent during 1943 and by December were 27 percent above their pre-war August 1939 level. In 1943, as in previous years, the principal advances were for lumber, as shown in the accompanying tabulation. There were moderate advances in manufacturers' prices for paint materials, plumbing and heating, and brick and tile.

	Percent of change from—	
	December 1943 to December 1943	August 1939 to December 1943
Building materials.....	+3.1	+26.6
Brick and tile.....	+1.3	+10.5
Cement.....	— .6	+2.5
Lumber.....	+8.0	+59.8
Paint and paint materials.....	+3.0	+25.8
Plumbing and heating.....	+1.5	+15.8
Structural steel.....	0	0
Other building materials.....	-0.2	+14.9

The price advance during the year for lumber of all types was 8 percent. For certain grades of oak and southern pine the rise was 20 percent or more, for Douglas fir, hard maple, and northern hemlock from 10 to 20 percent. These increases were accompanied by upward adjustments in OPA ceilings in the interest of stimulating production as well as covering substantial cost increases. Maxima had originally been fixed in most cases at levels prevailing in the autumn of 1941 and early 1942. The rise in operating expenses in the meantime had resulted in a "squeeze." The first general advance allowed in 1943 was in August for northern and southern hardwoods; its purpose was to cover in particular the rise of 12½ cents per hour in wage rates approved by the National War Labor Board in July, as well as to cover other cost increases.

The need to stimulate lumber production in 1943 was especially urgent in view of a severe manpower shortage in the industry and the heavy military requirements for gunstocks, truck bodies, ships, war factories, and especially boxing and crating. The manpower shortage was estimated by industry spokesmen at from 50 to 60 thousand workers. Production in the fall of 1943 ran 8 to 9 percent below the preceding year. Civilian consumption of lumber in 1943 was cut to half that of 1942.

Aside from lumber, the only substantial price increases were for a few paint materials. Prices of rosin and turpentine, both of which are exempt from OPA control, went up 9 and 18 percent, respectively, during the course of the year. Linseed oil, in especially heavy demand because of the loss of certain foreign oils, rose 17 percent in price early in the year until it was brought under OPA regulation in May. There were also increases for butyl acetate and lamp black, and some declines for white and red lead for which demand slackened late in the year.

Price changes for other building materials were minor. Brick and tile prices rose slightly more than 1 percent, on the average, as a result of several local price changes. The slight decline for cement resulted from a reduction in freight rates, and the advance for plumbing and heating equipment from an upward adjustment in OPA ceilings for radiation.

CHEMICALS AND ALLIED PRODUCTS

Markets for chemicals and allied products were generally stable in 1943, except for fertilizers. There were virtually no important changes in quotations for industrial chemicals despite the continued severe shortage of certain commodities, such as ethyl alcohol and toluene, essential to the war effort. Prices of drugs and pharmaceuti-

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als and fats and oils were also generally stable. There were moderate increases for fertilizers. As shown in the following statement, the average rise in manufacturers' or importers' prices, all chemicals and allied products combined, in 1943, was slightly less than 1 percent.

	Percent of change from—	
	December 1942	August 1939
	to December 1943	to December 1943
Chemicals and allied products-----	+0.9	+35.2
Chemicals-----	+.2	+14.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals-----	-.1	+114.3
Fertilizer materials-----	+2.9	+24.1
Mixed fertilizers-----	+4.5	+18.3
Oils and fats-----	+.5	+151.2

The increases since 1939 for most of these products occurred primarily in 1941. In the latter part of that year and in early 1942 OPA control was extended to cover all the commodities in this group.

The 1943 increases in fertilizers were due to higher labor and material costs, and consequent upward adjustments in OPA maximum prices. There were increases for phosphate rock, superphosphate, and a few nitrogenous materials, including ground bones and cottonseed meal, amounting in all to an average advance of slightly less than 3 percent. Upward adjustments by the OPA were also ordered in ceiling prices for mixed fertilizers, raising the average price for this group by over 4 percent.

Shortages for many industrial chemicals persisted in 1943, even though chemical production rose more than 170 percent from the summer of 1939 to December 1942 and an additional 24 percent in the first 10 months of 1943. There were price changes during the year for nicotine sulfate, stearic acid, copper sulfate, oleic acid, phenol, denatured alcohol, and phthalic anhydride, but the average change for industrial chemicals as a group was a rise of only 0.2 percent.

PETROLEUM PRODUCTS

Prices of petroleum products increased by 4.6 percent during the year at the wholesale level. In December 1943 they were 23 percent above the level prevailing before the outbreak of war in the summer of 1939. Changes in producers' prices were as follows:

	Percent of increase from—	
	December 1942	August 1939
	to December 1943	to December 1943
Petroleum products-----	+4.6	+22.8
Fuel oil-----	+7.0	+35.5
Gasoline-----	+6.0	+11.8
Kerosene-----	+8.0	+52.9
Crude oil-----	+1.2	+24.7

One of the most important advances in 1943 was an increase ranging up to 25 cents per barrel for California crude oil, allowed by the OPA specifically to encourage the development of new wells and fields in that area. The substantial advances for gasoline, kerosene, and fuel oil were primarily due to the fact that many quotations at the end of 1942 were below ceiling levels and have since increased. A few minor adjustments were made in OPA maximum prices—for

example, for kerosene in the East—to cover the higher costs of production and transportation, or to restore normal price differentials. However, some of the additional costs of transportation, resulting from the shipping scarcity, were absorbed during the year by Government subsidies.

At the end of the year requests by the industry for a general price advance were still under consideration by Government officials. The principal argument of the industry was the need for encouraging marginal output and new exploration. In the winter of 1943 supplies were still extremely limited and there was little likelihood of any relaxation in the rationing restrictions established for all petroleum products. In the winter of 1943, according to the Petroleum Administrator's Office, requirements of the armed forces amounted to about 30 percent of the total production of gasoline and heavy fuel oil, and more than 25 percent of total output of light fuel oil and kerosene. Total consumption in late 1943 was about 11 percent above the preceding year, whereas production had increased by only 7 percent.

PAPER AND PULP

Primarily because of increases for boxboard and newsprint paper, average prices of paper and pulp rose 7 percent in 1943 to a level 32 percent above August 1939. Manufacturers' prices for most other commodities in this group were stable or changed moderately, as indicated in the following tabulation.

	Percent of increase from—	
	December 1942 to December 1943	August 1939 to December 1943
Paper and pulp.....	+ 7. 1	+ 32. 5
Boxboard.....	+ 16. 8	+ 58. 3
Newsprint.....	+ 16. 1	+ 16. 1
Paper-mill products, except newsprint.....	+ 5. 3	+ 36. 7
Woodpulp, mechanical.....	0	+ 64. 9

The sharp advance in boxboard prices—averaging nearly 17 percent during the year—was basically due to the shortage of pulp and the great civilian and military demand for shipping containers. Reflecting especially the scarcity of skilled woodsmen, woodpulp output in the fall of 1943 was 6 percent below the same season of the previous year and stocks had declined by more than 50 percent. Prices of waste paper, used interchangeably with pulp as a raw material for many types of boxboard, rose more than 100 percent from the low levels of December 1942. Boxboard prices had also been substantially below their ceilings at the beginning of 1943, but before the year's end the OPA was required to fix maximum prices for certain grades at higher levels.

The increase for newsprint during the year was the first change since January 1938 and reflected the higher labor and material costs which had accumulated in the intervening years. The OPA permitted two advances in ceiling prices in March and September, raising the "port" price of newsprint from \$50 to \$58 per ton.

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Factors Determining Post-War Job Transfers and Unemployment¹

THE background against which all estimates of demobilization period job transfers and unemployment should be developed is the record of changes in labor force, employment, and unemployment since before the war and the further changes in these totals that are expected to take place between now and the war peak. This background is presented in table 1, which shows in terms of main components—armed forces, industry groups, and the unemployed—how the labor force was distributed in July 1930 and July 1940, how the pattern changed each year thereafter down to July 1943 and, finally, the estimated pattern at the peak of the war effort. For purposes of the present analysis it has been assumed that the war effort will reach its peak in July 1944. This assumes victory over Germany during the summer or autumn of 1944, but implies no definite assumption with respect to the date of victory over Japan and the end of the war as a whole. Should the defeat of Germany occur before July 1944, downward revisions of some of the figures in the final column of the table will be necessary to make them correspond to actual peak totals.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Distribution of the United States Labor Force, 1930–44

Classification	Estimated number (in thousands)					
	July 1930	July 1940	July 1941	July 1942	July 1943	July 1944—Assumed to be peak war effort ¹
Total labor force.....	50,053	57,400	58,300	60,600	64,800	66,300
Unemployed ²	3,253	9,300	5,700	2,800	1,200	1,000
Total civilian employed, plus armed forces.....	46,800	48,100	52,600	57,800	63,600	65,300
Armed forces ³	263	500	1,700	3,800	9,300	11,300
Civilian employed.....	46,537	47,600	50,900	54,000	54,300	54,000
Agricultural employment ⁴	12,193	10,800	10,700	11,700	12,100	12,000
Nonagricultural employment ⁵	34,344	36,800	40,200	42,300	42,200	42,000
Nonagricultural employees ⁶	28,517	30,638	34,939	37,234	38,364	38,600
Manufacturing.....	9,005	10,411	13,087	14,641	16,136	17,200
Metals, chemicals, and rubber.....	(7)	4,114	5,822	7,481	9,207	10,300
Other.....	(7)	6,441	7,265	7,160	6,929	6,900
Mining.....	966	907	961	923	830	800
Construction.....	1,718	1,660	2,100	2,108	1,218	800
Transportation and public utilities.....	3,675	3,059	3,362	3,519	3,683	3,700
Trade.....	6,025	6,462	6,837	6,504	6,290	6,200
Finance and service.....	3,982	4,140	4,300	4,335	4,359	4,300
Government.....	3,146	3,999	4,292	5,184	5,948	5,900
State and local.....	(7)	3,068	3,040	2,996	2,962	2,962
Federal.....	(7)	931	1,252	2,188	2,886	2,938
Balancing item ⁷	5,827	6,162	5,261	5,066	3,836	3,400

¹ Estimates of peak war requirements prepared jointly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission.

² 1930 from National Industrial Conference Board; 1940–43 from Bureau of the Census.

³ 1930 from Bureau of Labor Statistics; 1940–43 from joint estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission.

⁴ 1930 from Bureau of Agricultural Economics (average of estimates for July 1 and August 1); 1940–43 from Bureau of the Census.

⁵ 1930 from Bureau of Labor Statistics; 1940–43 from Bureau of the Census.

⁶ Nonagricultural employees and components exclude proprietors, self-employed, and domestic servants; 1930 from Bureau of Labor Statistics unrevised series; 1940–43 from Bureau of Labor Statistics revised series.

⁷ Difference between estimates of total nonagricultural employment and estimates of nonagricultural employees. Includes proprietors, self-employed, and domestic servants, but is not an accurate measure of this group.

⁸ Not available.

⁹ Prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the Subcommittee on War Contract Termination of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs.

The volume of job transfers that will be necessary as the result of termination of the war, and the amount of unemployment that will develop in this connection, will depend essentially on four factors: (1) Demobilization of the armed forces, (2) demobilization of war industry, (3) withdrawals from the labor force, and (4) reconversion and expansion of civilian production.

The number of new job applications will depend on the first three of the four indicated factors, plus intra-industry turnover.

The amount of unemployment at any given date after the war peak will depend on both the amount and the timing of the changes under the four indicated headings.

Extent of Forces to be Demobilized

DEMobilIZATION OF THE ARMED FORCES

The number of persons in the United States armed forces in July 1940, was half a million. It has been announced that at their peak the armed forces will total 11.3 million. If this figure is reached, and if the post-war armed force is no larger than the 1940 force, well over nine-tenths of the men in uniform at war peak will be mustered out—some of them, it may be, before Japan is defeated—and will then be either looking for work or going back to school. However, it is likely that a larger armed force than this country had in the pre-war period will be maintained for purposes of post-war defense, in which case the volume of military demobilization will be reduced accordingly. For example, if the post-war armed force in all branches of the service for purposes of policing, etc., numbers 2.5 million, somewhat under four-fifths of the peak force will be demobilized.

TABLE 2.—State Origins of Armed Forces at War Peak¹

[Estimated total for July 1944 distributed on same basis as total number of men furnished to armed forces to September 15, 1943]

States	Number of men (in thousands)	Percentage distribution	States	Number of men (in thousands)	Percentage distribution
United States.....	11,300	100.0	Montana.....	45	0.4
Alabama.....	203	1.8	Nebraska.....	102	.9
Arizona.....	45	.4	Nevada.....	11	.1
Arkansas.....	147	1.3	New Hampshire.....	45	.4
California.....	667	5.9	New Jersey.....	418	3.7
Colorado.....	90	.8	New Mexico.....	45	.4
Connecticut.....	170	1.5	New York.....	1,265	11.2
Delaware.....	23	.2	North Carolina.....	260	2.3
District of Columbia.....	79	.7	North Dakota.....	45	.4
Florida.....	158	1.4	Ohio.....	610	5.4
Georgia.....	226	2.0	Oklahoma.....	192	1.7
Idaho.....	84	.8	Oregon.....	122	1.1
Illinois.....	700	6.2	Pennsylvania.....	904	8.0
Indiana.....	271	2.4	Rhode Island.....	68	.6
Iowa.....	192	1.7	South Carolina.....	136	1.2
Kansas.....	147	1.3	South Dakota.....	45	.4
Kentucky.....	215	1.9	Tennessee.....	237	2.1
Louisiana.....	192	1.7	Texas.....	554	4.9
Maine.....	68	.6	Utah.....	45	.4
Maryland.....	170	1.5	Vermont.....	23	.2
Massachusetts.....	418	3.7	Virginia.....	215	1.9
Michigan.....	452	4.0	Washington.....	168	1.5
Minnesota.....	215	1.9	West Virginia.....	170	1.5
Mississippi.....	158	1.4	Wisconsin.....	237	2.1
Missouri.....	305	2.7	Wyoming.....	33	.3

¹ Data furnished by Selective Service System, based on local board inventory.

Table 2 shows the estimated State origins of the armed forces at war peak, and thus provides a basis for calculating the approximate impact of military demobilization on the labor force in each State under any given assumption regarding the size of the armed forces to be retained in the post-war period.

DEMobilIZATION OF WAR INDUSTRY

Workers will be laid off in three situations: (1) Many munitions manufacturing plants will close down. (2) This will adversely affect employment in underlying industries supplying raw materials, transportation, etc., until civilian production picks up. (3) In some communities that have been dependent on munitions production there will be lay-offs in stores, restaurants, and service industries. Beyond this inevitable curtailment, it must be noted that high wages derived from war production have helped to support the production of goods and services for civilian use, and that the prospect of a relatively high level of national income is essential to the maintenance of this employment.

The amount of manufacturing employment resulting from the munitions program may be estimated in two ways. At the peak of the war effort some 5 to 6 million workers will be engaged in the final stages of producing combat matériel (including in this category ordnance, ammunition, aircraft and aircraft parts, and naval and merchant ships). This does not count the workers producing raw and semifinished materials, equipment, and supplies that now go into munitions but also have peacetime uses. Alternatively it may be noted that, in 1940, just over 4 million persons were employed in the metal, chemical, and rubber manufacturing industries. At that time the end product of their labors had peacetime uses. At the peak of the war effort the number will be about 10.3 million; and whether or not they are engaged in making essentially the same product as in peacetime, it flows finally into combat matériel. The difference of about 6 million indicates the net number of workers who would be displaced if munitions orders were wiped out and industry reverted to 1940 civilian volumes in these fields.

Most of the 5 or 6 million engaged in the final processing of combat matériel will have to find work on other items. To a limited extent they may be kept on jobs after hostilities cease, in order to complete work on orders for goods that have a peacetime use, as for example Victory ships to replace slow Liberty vessels and the trucks and other equipment needed for rehabilitation of destroyed areas abroad. It may also be necessary to employ up to a million people in the metal, chemical, and rubber industries (including about half this number in the final fabrication of munitions) to maintain an armed force of 2.5 million with modern equipment.

In the first instance, however, cancelation of war contracts will affect not only those directly engaged in the manufacture of munitions but the larger number engaged in producing raw materials, etc. How many of them will be laid off will depend upon how quickly producers of civilian items are able to place orders. In this sense, therefore, the extent of demobilization depends upon the rate of reconversion. In minimum terms, lay-offs on war contracts will involve some 5 million workers; the maximum, having regard to the substitution of civilian contracts for war orders, should be substantially less than 10 million.

It should be noted that the above figures refer to the curtailment of the munitions segment of manufacturing proper. Obviously the war has also brought about an expansion in some of the other components of nonagricultural employment, notably in Government and to a lesser extent in transportation and public utilities. Government, for example, has added some 2 million employees to its civilian pay rolls since 1940 as the result of the demands placed on navy yards and Government manufacturing arsenals, other branches of the War and Navy Departments, and other war agencies of the Federal Government; the basis for much of this employment, too, may be expected to disappear when the war ends.

Size of the Post-War Labor Force

In the United States the labor force grows from year to year in response to the growth of population of working age. Thus, from 1930 to 1940 the labor force increased by a little more than 7 million. Had there been no change in trends we would have expected to find 59.1 million either at work or looking for work in July 1943 and 59.3 million in July 1944. Actually there were 64.8 million in the labor force in July 1943 and there will be need for 66.3 million in July 1944.

SOURCES OF ADDITIONAL WARTIME LABOR

How many workers are likely to withdraw from the labor force? The number will obviously influence the amount of unemployment.

Before this question can be answered it is necessary to ask whence these extra workers have come. This can be most easily described not with July data, when schools are usually closed, but with figures for October 1943. At that time there were 5.8 million extra people in the armed forces or the labor force. They came from the groups shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Sources of Recruitment of Additional Wartime Labor, by Age, Group, and Sex

Source of added workers	Age group	Number (in thousands) of—	
		Males	Females
All sources.....		3,224	1,577
Schools primarily.....	14-19 years.....	1,611	781
Colleges primarily.....	20-24 years.....	497	161
Nonworkers primarily.....	25-34 years.....	665	1,000
Retired primarily.....	35-64 years.....		
	65 years and over.....	451	

PROBABILITIES OF LABOR-MARKET WITHDRAWALS, BY AGE GROUPS

The extra males 25-64 years of age are likely to disappear from the labor market whenever it becomes hard to find work or to hold a job. At these ages almost all men are normally compelled both by economic necessity and by custom to have a job or to look for work. There are some who cannot work. A certain number, however, prefer not to work or are unwilling to expose themselves to the rebuffs of the labor

market, and in periods of depression a large proportion of this group become convinced that they are unable to work. It is from among these that some 665,000 extra males have been recruited. They are likely to disappear from the labor market again.

The extra males and females 65 years of age and over consist both of workers who have been called back from retirement and of those who have postponed their retirement. With an established system of old-age insurance and old-age assistance, a large proportion of these workers will normally retire. To the extent that provisions for retirement are extended or liberalized, their withdrawal from the labor market will be hastened. These 574,000 extra workers are not likely to remain long in the labor force.

It is noteworthy that the number of females 20-34 years of age in the labor market is little greater than normal. At these ages it is almost as usual for unmarried women to work as it is for men. Therefore there was not a large number of women without domestic responsibilities from among whom recruitment was possible. At these ages also married women are most likely to be rearing children. This group, more than any other, finds difficulty in taking jobs. The members of the group are likely to be among the first to withdraw when the patriotic appeal to work ceases, when the possibility of normal family living is restored, or when it is no longer so easy to find high-wage employment as it is today.

The problem of withdrawals from the labor force is therefore largely confined to two groups: young persons of school and college age and women 35-64 years of age.

Withdrawals of young people.—The larger of these groups consists of young people. With respect to them it is wise to think of the problem as one of reducing the size of the labor force. This does not necessarily require the withdrawal of any of those now working. Sooner or later virtually all of them, male and female, would have sought work. What has happened is that, voluntarily or otherwise, boys 18 years or younger went into the armed forces, some of whom would normally not have quit school or college until they were 19, 20, or 23. Boys and girls of 16, 17, or younger ages quit school to take jobs. Some of them have now passed the age at which they would normally have left school and have become a more or less normal part of the labor force, but the labor force is continually refreshed by fresh recruits who are leaving school prematurely. Within this group are 2.8 million who normally would still have been in school but are now at work or in the armed forces. Many will prefer in any event to keep on working. This may be especially true of girls who normally take jobs between school and marriage, and who may see little long-run advantage in going back to school.

Even if none of these individuals, male or female, chooses to go back to school, this segment of the labor force can, however, be reduced to approximately normal proportions within 1 or 2 years by inducing young people who are in school when hostilities cease, to stay in school as long as their brothers and sisters did in 1940, instead of leaving at as early an age as is customary today. If this is the only method used to return this segment of the labor force to normal size, it will mean that, especially during the critical conversion period, there will be several million extra workers in the labor market.

It will, thus, be important to induce as many withdrawals as possible by encouraging the maximum number of these young persons to return to school or college. This effort may be especially successful among young men in the armed forces, for they were not choosing jobs in preference to school. Obviously, the extent of withdrawals of younger persons to complete their general education or to acquire special training will depend on a number of factors about which positive statements cannot be made at this time. In particular, it will depend on the effectiveness with which our educational institutions enlist the interest of young persons who have been through war experiences, on the steps taken by Government to create educational opportunity for all young persons through the provision of financial assistance where that is necessary, and on the extent to which all young persons are now made aware of their probable need of further formal education. If young persons could be induced to regard this as a period when their services are more needed, and when many of them have a better opportunity to make large earnings, than will be the case 2 years hence—in other words to view the war and transitional period as an abnormal timing of education and practical experience—it might help to stimulate their return to school. Perhaps this campaign needs to be directed, above all, to the half million or more children of 14 and 15 who have taken jobs and may be permanently handicapped if they do not get more formal training.

Withdrawals of women.—Although the pressure in the labor market of large numbers of young persons who would normally have continued in school will swell the number of job seekers in the transitional period, the extra number of women 35 years of age and over who are now working will contribute somewhat to a permanent increase in the labor force. This group, now numbering a million and a half, and which may number 2 million by the peak of the war effort, is composed about equally of women under and over 45. It may be noted that of the present unusual supply of a million and a half, at least half a million are engaged in farm work and will probably leave the labor market as soon as the farms can be operated without their services as agricultural workers. Furthermore, there is some evidence that an especially large proportion of extra female workers 35 to 44 years of age are farm workers. Between April and October 1943 (the only dates for which data are available) almost all of the increased employment of women in these age groups occurred on farms. Thus, if we assume that there are today about a million more women 35 years of age or over in nonagricultural employment or looking for such work than would normally be the case, it is probable that about three-fourths of them are 45 years of age or over and that of this total comparatively few have children less than 14 years of age. It is almost certain that at least a few hundred thousand of these women will continue in the labor market. It is almost equally certain that this more or less permanent expansion of the labor force will not total as much as one million.²

² No allowance has been made in this discussion for battle casualties. The number of individuals who will be killed or so seriously disabled as to prevent their working cannot be estimated. Heavy casualties would affect the population distribution by age and sex, and the number of male workers. They would also result in relatively large numbers of single women and widows of young ages. Such women normally work, whereas married women normally do not work. Thus, the effect of heavy battle casualties will be to reduce the number of male workers and increase the number of female earners. The net reduction of the labor force would be much smaller than the number of battle casualties.

Reconversion and Expansion of Civilian Production

The rate at which reconversion and expansion of civilian production will proceed, as well as the levels that will be reached at any given date, can obviously not be predicted with assurance. Reconversion in the broad sense not only involves the retooling of plants, which probably need not require more than 6 months under favorable circumstances in any of the main industries affected and in most industries will require much less time than that, but also involves the re-assembling of materials and skilled labor, the rescheduling of production, and the rebuilding of distributive organizations.

It can probably be said with assurance that, as far as purely physical limitations are concerned, our economy could reconvert and reach full-employment levels of peacetime production within 12 to 18 months after the end of the war, even assuming that the war ended simultaneously in both theaters without any tapering-off of war production before final cessation of hostilities. It follows that there is no purely physical reason why full employment on a peacetime basis should not be achieved in a still shorter period if considerable reconversion takes place during the Asiatic phase of the war, following a prior defeat of Germany. By way of illustration, a reduction of 50 percent in munitions production in the Asiatic phase of the war, coupled with a simultaneous demobilization of, say, 3 million from the armed forces, might make it physically possible to reach full civilian production and employment in less than a year after the defeat of Japan.

It is clear, however, that the actual rate of reconversion and resumption of civilian production will be determined not solely by physical limitations but also by considerations growing out of and in turn affecting the general economic climate or environment, such as the policies adopted by the Government and the expectations and actions of industry. Thus, it is impossible to say that full peacetime employment will have been reached as of any specified date. Though it is probable that 1940 levels of production will be exceeded in a post-war year such as 1946 or 1947, even this cannot be said to be a certainty. If 1940 levels are not exceeded, the larger labor force and increased productivity of the post-war period will raise unemployment above the 1940 volume, which was 9.3 million in July and averaged 8.1 million for that year. However, the accumulation of deferred demand and liquid savings and the reduction of private indebtedness during the war create so strong a presumption in favor of rapid expansion of our civilian economy, or at least of large segments of our economy such as construction and the industries manufacturing consumer durable goods, that it is doubtful that there will be anything like this amount of unemployment 2 years after the close of hostilities.

The problem is rather one of how much unemployment there will be during the transitional period and of how well demand will be sustained later. The first depends in large part upon the policies developed to settle the disposal of Government-owned war plants and surplus stocks of war goods, including equipment that will have to be moved out of the way to make room for other machinery, the speed of settlement of war-contract obligations, tax policies directly affecting business, and the adequacy of capital and credit facilities, including facilities available to small business units.

The immediate rate of reconversion, and even more the longer outlook, depends on other factors as well. The spending of war savings to satisfy deferred demands will depend partly upon the confidence which workers feel in the rate of recovery. If they hold their savings against the day they may become unemployed, it will seriously retard recovery. Business plans will also be affected, because if businessmen anticipate nothing more than a temporary boom, they are not likely to engage in as large a capital-investment program as would be necessary to meet the needs of a working population of 54 or 55 million people. Furthermore, the rate of capital investment is likely to depend on what action may be taken by the Federal Government to prevent the development of disruptive price inflation during the transitional period when purchasing power still remains in excess of goods. If inflation occurs and businessmen expect a later deflation, they will hesitate to invest in plants or equipment or to build houses for sale or rent. Again, one cannot forecast how well demand can be sustained past the first period of probable post-war boom, without some knowledge as to how income is to be distributed and what controls are to be invoked by the Federal Government to check monopolistic restrictions on production.

Post-War Employment in Relation to Timing Factors

The above analysis of reconversion and expansion of civilian production indicates some of the timing factors upon which the general level of employment as of any given post-war date will depend. That level, however, will also depend on the timing of military and industrial demobilization and, further, as far as the total of all jobs is concerned, on the development of public-works programs. After World War I, over 95 percent of our army was demobilized in 10 months. This included bringing nearly 2 million members of the A. E. F. home from overseas. Military demobilization at the end of the present war will no doubt require the transportation of a much larger force back from foreign areas, and some of these men will have to be carried much greater distances. However, we now have the shipping and air transport facilities to enable us to bring home more men in less time than in 1918-19 if considerations of policy do not dictate a more gradual demobilization. How rapidly our overseas force is brought back to the United States and how soon our whole armed force is reduced to its normal post-war level will therefore depend in large part on policy decisions taken after weighing on the one hand the strong desire of the men to be demobilized quickly and on the other hand the difficulties that may result from mustering men out of service before there are jobs available for them.

Industrial demobilization will presumably take place with great rapidity after hostilities have ceased, in view of the ample munitions stocks on hand and the need to clear the road for peace production. Here too, however, the outcome will to some slight extent at least be determined by general policy considerations, since the shipbuilding program may be cut back over a shorter or a longer period and since Government contracts in a limited number of other fields might be gradually tapered off in order to secure additional output for such purposes as foreign relief and rehabilitation.

Finally, the level of unemployment as of any given date will depend not only on the interaction of all these elements, but on the timing of withdrawals from the labor force as well. Seasonal factors, such as the relation of Armistice Day to the beginning of the normal school term, will probably have some effect in this connection. A number of persons who do not intend to remain in the labor force may delay formal withdrawal until they have obtained the unemployment-compensation benefits to which they are entitled; consequently, current unemployment records may slightly overstate the real unemployment problem in the early months of peace.

With respect to timing, two hypothetical situations need to be considered: (1) The simultaneous end of hostilities against Germany and Japan; (2) the end of hostilities against Germany 12 months or more before the war against Japan is concluded.

The original analyses of the problem, carried through by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, were made on the assumption that the military economic effort would be sustained to the end, either because the United States was at war with both belligerents or because it chose to maintain maximum pressure against the remaining belligerent. Under these conditions it was impossible to visualize any other than a period of serious transitional unemployment, reaching maximum intensity 6 to 9 months after the end of hostilities. The maximum number unemployed at any one time might not have been greater than in the latter part of 1940, say 7 million, and might have been as much as 12 million or so. Which was the more probable no one could say without knowledge of certain timing factors. It was certain that it was technically impossible to reestablish civilian employment as rapidly as demobilization would have to take place. The Bureau attempted, therefore, not so much to estimate the volume of unemployment as to determine the points at which control could be exercised to keep down unemployment.

Today it appears probable that the war against Germany will end first and will result in a cut-back of production. This presents an entirely different problem from that raised by complete cessation of hostilities, for it opens the possibility of reducing war production gradually. After hostilities cease entirely, it will not be possible to taper off any substantial part of war production. Obstacles to such a gradual reduction exist even if hostilities are continuing on a large scale in some theater, but one can at least explore the possibility of—

1. Estimating total needed war matériel;
2. Determining which types of war matériel can be produced in advance of need, without undue danger of loss through spoilage and obsolescence;
3. Scheduling total munitions production at something like peak volume for the first month, tapering rapidly to the necessary average monthly production, and finally drawing goods from accumulated stores.

To date we do not have enough information from military authorities and the War Production Board to determine what is in fact likely to happen, nor is it known whether a production program such as is indicated is consistent with the uncertainties that attend the making of war plans. We will never know exactly how long the war is going to last, or exactly how much force has to be brought to bear against

the enemy. Thus, any tapering scheme would presuppose that the industrial machine was left in condition to pick up munitions production almost overnight, in the event that original forecasts underestimated Japanese strength. In any event our object should certainly be to seek to reduce wartime dislocations to a minimum before the end of the war with Japan.

No estimate at all can be made of the probable volume of unemployment during the period of a war with Japan alone. Locally severe unemployment will be experienced in some centers when war contracts are terminated. The problem in this period is likely to be that of getting people out of congested war centers and into employment in nonwar industries and perhaps in other places, rather than that of large-scale, Nation-wide unemployment. It would probably be a mistake to try to avoid local unemployment of the sort forecast, because it is precisely during this period that the best opportunity is offered of avoiding the development of what will, after the war, become stranded areas. We do not know how quickly people will be willing to move to places where jobs do exist.

"Gross" and "Net" Labor Turnover

To the extent that these comments throw light on the number of persons who will be mustered out of the armed services or dismissed from war industry, and who then will not wish to withdraw from the labor force but rather will wish to find new employment, they provide a basis for calculating the "net" number of job transfers, or at any rate of job applications, that will result from the demobilization process. The actual amount of labor turnover, however, will be very much greater than is indicated by calculating "net" contractions and expansions in major components of the labor force on a broad national basis. Available statistics of past and current rates of labor turnover in selected industries provide no real clue to the extent to which interplant transfers within a given industry and transfers that cancel out between industries will increase the "gross" turnover after the war, because the statistical record is incomplete and because the situation in the demobilization period will in any case be without precedent. But, although precise measurement is impossible, it can be safely assumed that the total or "gross" number of job applications and job transfers will be several times as large as the "net" turnover, particularly in view of the tremendous local and interstate population movements that can be expected, following those which have occurred in response to the demands of war.

Suppose for instance, a private comes out of the Army and gets his former job back in an automobile company in Detroit, replacing an older civilian without job seniority who moved to Detroit, after the attack on Pearl Harbor, to work on tank assemblies. The latter goes home to Grand Rapids and, after some difficulty, obtains a job with a company making furniture—which displaces a woman worker, who then applies for a job as a teacher. Shortly afterward, however, the civilian decides to leave Grand Rapids and become a salesman for a household-equipment company whose head office is in Los Angeles. Meanwhile an ex-teacher and an ex-salesman may be taking jobs with a furniture manufacturer in New York. This is the kind of thing that will obviously be happening all over the country.

It may therefore be emphasized, in conclusion, that an enormous load will be thrown on the U. S. Employment Service in the near future—a load not adequately measured in terms of expected military and industrial contractions, large as the latter magnitudes loom in themselves. It is impossible to contemplate this prospect without coming to the conclusion that, whatever other policy decisions are reached by the Congress with respect to the solution of demobilization problems, the welfare and happiness of the American people will be greatly promoted if steps are taken to strengthen the U. S. Employment Service before demobilization is upon us.

Labor Conditions in Belgium¹

Summary

BELGIUM is a highly industrialized country with its production normally geared to the export trade. Prior to the war there were very few industries in which less than a third of the total production was exported and, in almost half, the proportion was over 50 percent. The country has one of the densest populations in the world; on an area of 11,775 square miles, or about the size of Maryland, it had in 1937 a population of 8,361,220, nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ times as great as in that State. Without an active industry the country could not have maintained such a dense population, as the lands available for agriculture are not extensive enough to provide food for the Belgian people.

The gainfully employed population in 1930, the date of the last census, numbered 3,750,285, or 46.3 percent of the total population. Of this number only 637,604 were engaged in forestry, agriculture, and fishing, as compared with 1,570,108 in industry, and 221,692 in mines and quarries. Wage earners numbered 1,810,048, or about 48 percent of the gainfully employed.

Hourly wages of male industrial workers in 1938 ranged in general from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 francs with only a few specialized trades paying more than 7 francs, and unskilled laborers receiving, as a rule, from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 francs. As the exchange value of the franc at that time was roughly equivalent to 3 cents in United States currency, the general pre-war wage level for male workers was from 15 to 21 cents an hour for most skilled and semiskilled occupations and from 12 to 15 cents for common labor. Wages of female workers were generally lower than for male workers. Wages were frozen at the rates paid on May 10, 1940, the date of the invasion of the country, by a decree of the German occupying authorities in August 1940. In May 1941, minimum gross rates of pay were fixed for industrial and agricultural workers and salaried employees. The minimum hourly rate for men in industrial enterprises was 5 Belgian francs and for women, 3.50 francs; cash wages of male agricultural workers were 3.80 francs per hour and for women, 2.70 francs. The minimum monthly rates for salaried employees were 1,000 francs for men and 800 francs for women.

The basic 8-hour day and 48-hour week were made effective in mines and quarries, industrial establishments, commercial offices, etc., in 1921, and for employees in wholesale and retail establishments in 1935. Regulations issued by the German military command in October 1942 provided for a minimum 8-hour day and a general maximum of 11 hours for men, although longer hours could be authorized. The maximum hours of women were fixed at 10 per day and 8 on Saturdays.

Trade-unions were organized along political or religious lines, and the close union between political and trade-union elements was one of the chief characteristics of the trade-union movement. There was also close association with the mutual-benefit societies and cooperative organizations.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Anice L. Whitney.

Official conciliation and arbitration committees were first established in 1926. Voluntary committees could also be formed by groups of employers and workers in separate industries or groups of industries. If conciliation failed, recourse was had to arbitration. A distinctive feature of industrial relations in Belgium was the formation of joint industrial committees or councils which the Government encouraged industry to create. In 1937 there were about 110 national and regional councils which had been instituted by either royal or ministerial decree.

The cooperative associations in Belgium, like the trade-union movement, were divided along political and religious lines. In 1938 there were 3,482 associations among the nonagricultural cooperatives, representing a large variety of types. Before the outbreak of war the consumers' cooperatives were serving about a fourth of the population and accounted for about 10 percent of the total retail trade.

Compulsory insurance, under State auspices, against old age and death is provided under different systems for wage earners, salaried employees, miners, and seamen. Sickness, maternity, tuberculosis, invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance is organized on a voluntary basis for members of mutual benefit societies, which are subsidized by the State. Unemployment insurance, subsidized by the State, is also organized on a voluntary basis by the trade-unions. Compensation is paid for industrial accidents and listed occupational diseases. The Belgian laws providing for workmen's compensation, old-age and survivors' insurance, and family allowances were continued by the German occupying authorities.

Two languages are spoken in the country—French and Flemish. The latter language is used in the Provinces of East and West Flanders, Antwerp, and Limburg. French was first the official language of the country but in 1898 equality of the two languages was established.

Prior to the German invasion there were three principal political parties—Catholic, Socialist, and Liberal—the minority parties being the Flemish Nationalists and Communists. A Catholic-Liberal Government under Hubert Pierlot was in power when war broke out; it was then decided to form a National Government with the Socialists included, Mr. Pierlot remaining as Prime Minister. The Government-in-exile, established in London after the invasion of the country, performs the legislative functions normally belonging to Parliament.

Economic Resources of the Country

Agricultural production, which is of much less importance to Belgium than industrial production, is carried out mainly in the lowlands near the coast. Farms are small but intensively cultivated. The principal agricultural products are cereals (wheat, barley, oats, and rye), potatoes, and sugar beets.

The southern and eastern parts of the country are hilly and contain most of the industrial centers and mining regions. Coal and iron are the most important mineral products but zinc, lead, and copper mines are also worked in the Ardennes. Formerly the production of coal greatly exceeded the country's needs and part of it was exported, principally to France. The production of industrial coal, particularly for making coke, was deficient, however, and important quantities were imported from Germany and England. Before the war coal

output amounted to about 2.5 million tons a month. After a drastic reduction in May and June 1940 (i. e., at the time of the German invasion), production began to rise again and by January 1941 had attained the level of 2.4 million tons. The publication of statistics has since been discontinued, but unofficial reports in 1942 give the monthly production as about 2 million tons.

Employment Conditions

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

Belgium has never published figures showing changes in employment, as has been the practice in most of the industrial countries. However, the periodic reports on unemployment reflect the trend of employment opportunities. The industrial expansion following the first World War, which was accompanied with improvements in industrial equipment, resulted in greatly increased industrial activity which continued up to the beginning of the depression in 1929.

As the depression deepened, various means were employed to keep as many workers on the job as possible. Overtime was reduced to a minimum and hours were cut in many establishments, either by shortening the working day or by reducing the number of days worked. Night work was abolished in some cases and the two-shift system was given up in some industrial areas. By March 1935, the intensification in the slump in production was accompanied by a financial crisis which brought about a change of Government.

The new Government took various steps to improve the economic situation, among which were a devaluation of the franc to 72 percent of its gold parity, measures for price control, and the institution of a public-works program. As a result of these and other measures business conditions and, consequently, employment conditions improved. In the latter part of 1937, however, there was again a general decline in industrial activity, brought about partly by the unsettled world conditions and partly by the competition from the growing industrialization of countries which formerly were mainly agricultural. Thus, the short-term period of industrial revival was terminated in spite of the stimulus of world-wide rearmament.

After the occupation of the country, employment fluctuated as a result of various measures taken by the Germans to adapt the Belgian economy to the needs of the German war machine.

OCCUPATIONS OF THE LABOR FORCE

The latest data regarding the industrial distribution of the population are contained in the 1930 General Census. Of the total population of 8,092,004 in that year, 3,750,285 or 46.3 percent were gainfully occupied. Forestry, agriculture, and fishing accounted for 637,604 persons, mines and quarries for 221,692, and industry for 1,570,108, the last figure representing 42 percent of the gainfully occupied.

Belgium normally imports a large proportion of the raw materials used in manufactures and as a result much of the industrial work consists of turning the raw materials into finished products, thus requiring a relatively higher proportion of skilled workers than in countries where production of raw materials forms a larger part of the total.

For example, only 65,935 persons were engaged on crude metals, whereas 277,970 were employed in the manufacture of metal products. Textiles and clothing together accounted for 426,920 workers. In all industries except textiles, male workers were greatly in excess of females. In the clothing industries females outnumbered males about three to one.

TABLE 1.—*Gainfully Occupied Population of Belgium, by Occupational Groups, Sex, and Industrial Status, 1930*

Class and sex of workers	Total	Agriculture, forestry, fishing	Mines and quarries	Industry	Commerce, banking, insurance (including hotels)	Transport and communication
Total gainfully employed.....	¹ 3,750,285	637,604	221,692	1,570,108	543,757	256,105
Males.....	¹ 2,757,955	497,072	215,299	1,210,390	315,299	244,292
Females.....	¹ 992,330	140,532	6,393	359,718	228,458	11,813
Managers or employers:						
Males.....	584,457	242,840	1,284	161,841	159,816	18,676
Females.....	168,761	24,518	20	33,908	100,331	894
Salaries employees:						
Males.....	224,553	624	8,128	65,000	94,553	56,248
Females.....	67,814	71	497	20,056	41,791	5,399
Wage earners:						
Males.....	1,484,780	117,900	205,756	953,271	42,217	165,637
Females.....	325,268	12,554	5,859	292,701	11,635	2,519
Unpaid family workers:						
Males.....	188,762	135,699	131	30,478	18,713	3,741
Females.....	184,871	103,389	17	12,763	66,701	3,001

¹ Includes 275,403 males and 245,616 females in public administration, liberal professions, domestic and personal services, and insufficiently described occupations.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment figures published by the Belgian Government do not reflect the full volume of unemployment, as the figures cover only insured members of the voluntary unemployment-insurance funds. This insurance system is built around the trade-unions, and it is probable that unemployment was relatively greater among the unorganized workers. Statistics showing days of unemployment as a percentage of the total possible working days of insured members indicate a serious unemployment situation during the whole decade preceding the war. Thus in 1932 the percentage of unemployed days was 23.5, and even during the period of partial recovery in 1937 was still 13.1. Thereafter, the percentage of unemployment rose, and in September 1939, when the war in Europe began, was 21.0.

Various steps were taken by the Government to deal with the unemployment situation. In 1934, the use of national emergency funds by the Minister of Labor and Social Welfare for grants to local authorities and public bodies for the employment of unemployed workers on relief work and for their retraining was authorized. An Economic Recovery Office was established in 1935 to coordinate recovery measures, and public works were provided for in both the ordinary and extraordinary budgets of 1936.

During 1936, it became increasingly apparent that the absorption of the unemployed was not solely a question of industrial recovery. Some industries—coal and textiles, for example—reported an actual shortage of help at the year end, but a good many persons remained on relief rolls who were credited to those industries yet could not be

employed on account of age or loss of skill. Intellectual workers also appeared to be experiencing a more or less permanently narrowed field as a result of economies introduced during the depression. In the light of these factors, therefore, there was a continued emphasis on public works, on which expenditures continued in excess of 2 billion francs yearly.

During the first weeks following mobilization there was a serious increase in unemployment, but by the middle of October 1939 the number of unemployed was only 16 percent above the premobilization figure. However, an Interdepartmental Committee was established by the Minister of Public Works and Re-employment in that month, to coordinate public works.

Immediately after the invasion of the country the number of unemployed was estimated at about 600,000, but in the following months unemployment was reduced as a result of partial economic recovery and the increasing transfer to Germany of the unemployed. The decline in unemployment, however, varied widely according to industry. In some industries, such as coal mining, the subordination of the Belgian economy to that of Germany stimulated production and by the beginning of 1941 led to a shortage of labor which was aggravated by the departure of some of the foreign workers who had been employed in German mines before the war. In other industries, such as textiles, unemployment became chronic, owing chiefly to the shortage of raw materials. The number of unemployed rose from 151,112 in April 1940 to nearly 245,000 in January 1941, but by April of that year had again declined to about 151,000. The greatest improvement in employment was in coal mining and the iron and steel industries.

The German authority of occupation at first attempted to persuade unemployed workers to register voluntarily for work in Germany; but when this attempt was unsuccessful compulsion was exerted, first by taking away the relief cards of the workers and later (March and October 1942) by orders providing that labor service was compulsory for Belgian workers throughout the territory of the Reich. The order applied to men between the ages of 18 and 50 years and unmarried women between 21 and 35 years of age.

The employment of Jews in any public office in a professional capacity, as teachers, or in newspaper or broadcasting enterprises was prohibited in December 1940, and in May 1942 working conditions for these workers were placed on the same footing as those in force in Germany. Jewish workers could receive pay only for work performed, and all bonuses, sick pay, or other extra compensation was denied them; they were to be employed only in groups, and if employed away from home were to be housed in separate quarters.

By an order of June 1941, general supervision of industry was placed in the hands of a General Labor Regulation Officer who had power to regulate conditions of employment other than wages and salaries. Labor regulation officials had the right of entry into workplaces and could require employers and workers to supply any information and submit any documents the officials might require.

In March 1942 an order issued by the German occupying authority reserved to itself the right to order the total or partial closing-down of undertakings as a means of creating reserves of manpower to meet German needs.

After compulsory registration was put into effect, increasing numbers of workers were deported to Germany and in August 1943 it was reported that more than 500,000 men and women had been deported. Direct methods for obtaining this labor have at times included requisitioning a certain percentage of the labor force of certain factories or towns, designation of particular workers for a labor draft, round-ups of workers in public places and streets, and forced deportation. In some cases an entire plant was closed down and its working force as well as its machinery was shipped to Germany.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

Employment offices were first established in Belgium by the national relief committee immediately following the Armistice in 1918. The offices were placed by a 1924 order under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Labor, who was given authority to fix the conditions under which approval was granted to offices organized through private initiative or by public authorities. One or more joint supervisory committees, composed of an equal number of representatives of employers' and workers' organizations, controlled the employment activities of the individual offices. These committees were empowered, by agreement, to fix for each industry the rate of wages below which the office would not consent to place workers.

In 1934 the employment exchanges were reorganized and employment and unemployment offices were provided for, the expenses of which were defrayed by the State. The law provided that at least one and not more than three offices should be opened in each Province. When the National Employment and Unemployment Office attached to the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare was established in 1935 it was given general charge of the organization and management of the employment exchanges and unemployment services, as well as supervision of the private employment exchanges. Free employment-exchange services for all persons, whether or not they were members of an unemployment society, were provided for by an order of May 1936. The order did not abolish private exchanges but provided that in order to receive approval they must satisfy certain conditions and must provide for free placement of all workers without distinction.

Under German occupation the general structure of the Belgian employment-exchange system was maintained, but, as in Germany itself, the system was converted more and more into a mechanism for labor control. The title of the old National Employment Office was changed to the National Employment and Supervision Office, but in April 1941 its old name was restored.

The National Employment Office exercises a highly centralized control over the hiring and firing of all Belgian workers. An order of April 1941 provided that every head of an enterprise who employed, even temporarily, 50 or more intellectual or manual workers must engage his employees through the National Employment Office. Such an employer might specify by name the workers whom he wished to engage and the manager of the regional office was required to comply with his request. It was also required that any changes occurring in the staff of such an establishment, from any cause, should be reported to the regional office and notification made of the applicants hired and of the reasons for not hiring other applicants. If a worker

was dismissed the employer was required to issue to him immediately a certificate giving the real reason for his discharge. The provisions of this order did not apply to agricultural workers, domestic servants, actors, musicians, or entertainers, but fee-charging employment agencies which were already in existence and were authorized to continue operations could continue to serve such persons.

Another order issued in April 1941 provided that employers customarily employing more than 5 persons were bound to supply the National Employment Office, when requested, with all information regarding the composition of their staff and the work of their establishments. Such employers might be required to dismiss single workers or childless widowers or divorced persons and to replace them with married or other persons who had child dependents and the same occupational classifications. Workers dismissed for this reason were not entitled to the notice, or the compensation in lieu of notice, provided for by the legislation concerning employment contracts.

During 1940 and 1941 the German employment exchanges opened offices in Belgium, next to the Belgian employment offices, as recruiting centers for German industry. The employment offices were instructed to refer all applicants for employment to the recruiting centers. However, the number of workers who voluntarily accepted employment was small and many of those who went to Germany later returned to their homes, either with or without authorization.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions

GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

In 1938, hourly wages of male industrial workers ranged, in general, from 5½ to 7 francs; only a few specialized trades paid more than 7 francs per hour, and unskilled laborers usually received 4½ to 5 francs. Assuming that the Belgian franc at that time was roughly equivalent to 3 cents in United States currency,¹ the general pre-war wage for male workers in Belgium ranged from 15 to 21 cents an hour for most skilled and semiskilled occupations and that of common labor from 12 to 15 cents. Wages for female workers were very generally lower than for males.

Wages did not show any decided variation as between different industrial areas.

TREND OF WAGES 1929-39

There was a general decline in wages starting with the depression which began in 1929 and reaching its culmination in 1935. Real wages did not decline accordingly, however, as there was also a decline in the cost of living, the cost-of-living index number in 1935 having dropped to 80 (1929=100). The index number of real wages in that year according to the figures presented in the 1942 International Labor

¹ This is necessarily an extremely crude, rough estimate, because of the lack of significance in foreign exchange rates as measures of domestic purchasing power after the general abandonment of the gold standard in the early thirties.

The par value of the Belgian franc (i. e., its value in United States currency) prior to and during the first World War was 19.3 cents. In 1926, the franc (which had fallen to an exchange value of 2.72 cents) was stabilized, the paper money was relinked to gold, and a new currency unit—the belga, equivalent to 5 francs—was introduced. The franc remained the basis of the monetary system, however, and is the medium of exchange in all domestic business, the belga being used only in foreign exchange transactions. In March 1936, the franc was fixed at 72 percent of the gold parity. The average exchange value of the belga in United States currency in 1936 was 16.92 cents, or 3.38 cents for the franc. For the portion of 1940 for which quotations are available, the exchange value of the belga was 16.88 cents, and of the franc, 3.38 cents.

Office Yearbook of Statistics was 102, so that in spite of the fall in money wages, real wages were still above the 1929 level. After 1935, wages began to increase and in 1939 the index numbers of money wages and real wages were 104 and 112, respectively.

Index numbers of money wages, real wages, and cost of living from 1929 to 1939 are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Money Wages, Cost of Living, and Real Wages in Belgium, 1929-39

Year	Index numbers		
	Money wages	Cost of living	Real wages
1929.....	100	100	100
1930.....	106	104	102
1931.....	99	93	106
1932.....	91	84	108
1933.....	88	83	107
1934.....	84	79	106
1935.....	81	80	102
1936.....	88	85	104
1937.....	97	92	106
1938.....	103	94	110
1939.....	104	93	112

The average wages paid in the metal, textile, and clothing industries and in coal mining in 1938 are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Average Hourly Wages in Specified Occupations in Belgium, March 1938

Industry and occupation	Wage rate per hour	Industry and occupation	Wage rate per hour
Metal industries		Textile industry	
Mechanical construction:		Sorters, female.....	France 4.16
Machine-tool operatives:		Washers, male.....	4.16
Boring-machine hands.....	France 6.45-7.75	Combers, female.....	3.98
Cutting-press operators.....	6.25-7.45	Spinners, male.....	5.65-6.99
Metal stampers.....	5.30-6.25	Carders, male.....	5.83
Drill operators.....	5.55-6.25	Twisters, female.....	4.22-5.75
Milling-machine men.....	6.60-7.75	Warpers, male.....	6.47
Tool makers.....	6.65-7.80	Weavers, male.....	5.82
Planing-machine men.....	6.25-7.45	Finishers, male.....	4.46
Lathe hands.....	6.60-7.00	Finishers, female.....	3.98
Hand workers:		Weavers, cotton, male.....	1 230.00
Fitters, mechanics.....	6.40-7.05	Weavers, wool, male.....	1 280.00
Laborers.....	4.60-5.20	Dyers, male.....	4.47
Blacksmiths.....	6.45-7.90		
Tool and die makers.....	7.50		
Foundries:		Clothing industries	
Founders.....	6.25-6.90	Machine sewers, female.....	3.00
Laborers.....	4.65-5.55	Ladies' tailors, male.....	5.50-6.00
Orinders.....	5.70-6.45	Men's tailors, male.....	5.23
Iron molders.....	6.60-7.75	Dressmakers, female.....	4.50
Bench molders.....	6.45-7.20		
Core makers.....	6.45-7.45		
Roller shops, structural steel:		Coal mining	
Fitters.....	5.30-5.95	Workers at the face.....	1 63.00
Smiths, iron and copper.....	6.30-6.95	Underground workers.....	1 48.50
Stampers and filers.....	5.35-6.05	Surface workers.....	1 36.40
Laborers.....	4.65-5.55	Underground and surface workers.....	1 44.60
Riveters.....	5.60-6.70		
Are welders.....	7.45-8.70		
Sheet-iron workers and wire drawers.....	6.25-6.95		
Tube-mill workers.....	5.70-6.95		

¹ Per week.

² Per day.

WAGES AFTER GERMAN OCCUPATION

Living costs rose rather sharply after the invasion and occupation of the country by the Germans. The index for the first 9 months of 1940 (first half of 1939=100) was 110 and in May 1941, 173. Money wages did not increase and, as a result, real wages declined sharply. The index for 1940 was 95 and for June 1941, 68.

Wages were frozen at the rates paid on May 10, 1940, the date of the invasion of the country. In the case of diamond workers, new rates were established by a joint decree issued by the Commissioner of Prices and Wages and the Secretary General of the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare in the latter part of January 1941. The decree provided that the wage schedule fixed for diamond workers in November 1937, plus a 15-percent increase, should apply as minimum wages to all persons employed in the industry, except apprentices. Workmen paid by the day, performing operations not mentioned in the schedule, were to receive wages corresponding to those paid on May 10, 1940, plus 15 percent. The minimum remuneration for 40 hours of work was fixed at 280 francs, or a proportionate amount for less than 40 hours.

The wages paid to Belgian workers in Germany ranged from 0.65 to 1.00 mark per hour, depending on the type of work, for single men. Married men received separation allowances of 1.50 marks a day. Housing and maintenance allowances of 17.50 to 18 marks a week were paid. Deductions for welfare organizations, insurance, and war savings ranged from 17½ to 24 percent of the gross wages per week. Such deductions were not specified in the contract.

FACTORS AFFECTING WAGES

Family allowances.—Family allowances were paid as early as 1915 in the Belgian coal-mining industry, and later various family allowance funds were created in private industry. It was not until 1928 that legislation was enacted making compulsory the payment of family allowances for both wage-earning and salaried employees in State enterprises and establishing a Family Allowance Board in the Ministry of Industry, Labor and Social Welfare. A general compulsory system for private industry was created in August 1930 which required all employers to become members of an approved equalization fund. The law was modified and extended by subsequent legislation.

Contributions by employers were based on the total number of employees, without regard to the number of children in the families of the workers. In April 1938, the daily rates of contribution were 1.10 francs for each man and 0.60 franc for each woman employed.

Allowances were paid for children up to the age of 18 years, unless employed, and indefinitely for children who were physically or mentally defective. The allowances increased with each child up to the fifth, ranging from 0.80 franc per day for the first child to 4.95 francs for the fifth and each subsequent child. Two years after the German invasion it was reported that family allowances were still being paid.

Vacations with pay.—A law of July 1936 established paid vacations for workers in mines and quarries, industry, commerce, public services,

Wage
law pas

etc., and in 1938 the act was extended to agriculture, horticulture, and forestry. The 1936 law applied to establishments employing at least 10 persons but the coverage was later extended to those employing 5 persons or more and in 1938 to all establishments without regard to the number of employees.

Workers were entitled, after 1 year's service with the same employer, to at least 6 days' vacation with pay; for young persons under the age of 18 on the date on which the right to a holiday was acquired the vacation period was doubled. A stamp system introduced in 1938 annulled the service requirements and substituted a vacation period based on the amount contributed. The contribution by the employer amounted to 2 percent of wages and was paid into a national fund. Employees received their regular remuneration for the vacation period.

Social-insurance benefits.—Under State auspices, compulsory insurance against old age and death is provided under different systems for wage earners, salaried employees, miners, and seamen. Sickness, maternity, tuberculosis, invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance is organized on a voluntary basis for members of mutual benefit societies, which are subsidized by the State. Unemployment insurance subsidized by the State is also organized on a voluntary basis by the trade-unions. Contributions and benefits vary in the different systems. The Belgian laws providing for workmen's compensation, old-age and survivors' insurance, and family allowances were continued by the German occupation authorities.

HOURS OF LABOR

A basic 8-hour day and 48-hour week was established by a law passed in 1921, covering mines and quarries, industrial and commercial establishments, public works, public utilities, building and construction, shipbuilding and repair, and transportation and warehousing. Hours in excess of these limits could be worked under collective agreements, but overtime was to be paid for at not less than $1\frac{1}{4}$ times the normal rates. It was provided that the reduction in hours resulting from the act might not involve a reduction in wages. The act was extended to staff members, other than office employees, of establishments engaged in wholesale and retail trade in 1935. In continuous processes longer hours (not to exceed 56 hours a week) were permitted, but it was provided that compensatory holidays should be given.

A 5-day, 40-hour week was provided for in the diamond industry in 1936, and a 40-hour week was also established in industries or branches of industries in which work was carried on under dangerous, unhealthy, or offensive conditions.

For coal mines and metal mines a $7\frac{1}{2}$ -day and 45-hour week was established in 1937, but in February 1940, as a result of the war emergency, hours were increased to 8 per day and 48 per week, including travel time. At the same time, wages were increased by 1.5 percent, to make up for the half hour added to the daily hours of work.

WAGE AND HOUR REGULATION

Wages.—Minimum wages for home work were regulated under a law passed in Belgium in 1934, but aside from this there was no wage

legislation except a general law passed in 1887 specifying the place and time at which wages should be paid. For workers generally, minimum wages were established, usually, through collective agreements.

In August 1940 the German authority of occupation issued an order prescribing a number of measures designed (largely from the German viewpoint) to secure stability of wages and salaries "in the interest of the national economy." These measures were modeled in the main on those previously adopted in Germany. The wage-freezing order issued in May 1940 applied to home work and all customary bonuses and allowances, and fixed the rates in new establishments and offices created or transformed after the coming into force of the order, at the rates actually paid in similar enterprises.

On the grounds that the economic policy of the country and the regulation of relations between employers and employees called for continuous official control of prices and wages, and that the necessary equilibrium could not be established without a special service for this purpose, a Prices and Wages Commissariat, subordinate to the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare, was established in August 1940.

Minimum gross rates of pay were fixed by the Commissariat, in conjunction with four other ministries, for workers engaged under a contract of employment, excluding domestic servants and public administrative staff. The minimum rates were fixed for industrial and agricultural workers and salaried employees as follows: Industrial workers, 5 Belgian francs an hour for adult men, 3.50 francs for adult women; agricultural workers, cash wages of 3.80 francs per hour for men and 2.70 francs for women; and salaried employees, 1,000 francs per month for men and 800 francs for women. In calculating the minimum rates, account was to be taken of any payments in kind under the contract. Following a strike of 100,000 workers in the Province of Liège in 1941, the gross earnings of all workers and salaried employees were increased by 8 percent in cases in which there had been no increase since May 10, 1940, but the percentage increase did not apply to payments in kind. The Prices and Wages Commissioner was authorized to allow exceptions or to fix rates of wages and salaries in general and to cancel existing contracts if he considered this necessary for economic or social reasons. He also was given charge of the settlement of disputes.

Coal miners were granted attendance bonuses by an order of May 1941. The bonus for underground workers amounted to 7½ or 15 percent, according to the worker's category, in the Campine; and 5 or 10 percent in other areas. A loyalty bonus, payable as of June 1, 1942, was also granted by an order of September 1941, to underground workers who had been in the service of the same mining enterprise for more than a year. The same order strengthened restrictions on miners' freedom of movement, and coercive measures were also adopted for increasing the labor forces of the companies.

Overtime was generally limited by the 1921 act, but in cases in which it was authorized the law provided that it should be paid for at not less than 1¼ times the regular rate. The German order of October 1942 continued this provision but prohibited the payment of overtime in seasonal industries.

Hours.—The disruption to industry following the German occupation of the country was acute in certain industries, such as textiles,

dress, and diamond cutting. As a result, in the early part of 1941 hours of work in these industries were reduced in order to spread the work and thus avoid total unemployment.

After labor had been more fully directed into the German war effort, an order of October 1942 issued by the German Military Command repealed the basic 8-hour-day act and all subsequent legislation and fixed the minimum hours of work of adult males at 8 per day with a maximum of 11, except where longer hours were authorized by the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare. Extensions of hours might also be authorized by the Controller of Labor and by the head of an establishment. Normal hours might be extended up to 11 per day or even beyond, where the work regularly included periods of mere attendance. In dangerous and continuous processes hours were limited to 8 per day with certain exceptions. The maximum hours of women were fixed at 10 per day and 8 on Saturdays or the day preceding a holiday, except in certain classes of enterprises.

Labor and Employer Organizations

Freedom of association was not legally granted in Belgium until 1921. Trade-unions were organized along political or religious lines and the close ties between political and trade-union elements constitute one of the chief characteristics of the Belgian trade-union movement. Another distinctive characteristic is the close association of the trade-unions with mutual benefit societies and cooperative associations.

The largest national labor organization was the General Confederation of Labor, followed in order by the Confederation of Christian Unions and the General Central of Liberal Unions. In 1940, before the invasion of the country, the total trade-union membership was approximately 1 million. Employers in Belgium were also well organized in the Central Industrial Committee which represented them in negotiations of nation-wide importance; in addition, employers in different industries had their own associations.

In 1942 the free trade-unions were dissolved by the German authorities. In August of that year their property was confiscated, and it was provided that such property could be transferred to associations formed to replace the labor organizations. A similar order issued a few days later provided for the dissolution of employers' organizations and transfer of their assets to associations formed to take their place. The dissolution of the Belgian Labor Party was announced in June 1942.

Industrial Relations

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

There was no legislation in Belgium regulating collective agreements but, following a general strike movement in 1936, labor relations were placed under what amounted to a de facto control of the central employers' and workers' organizations. The strike movement was ended with an agreement in principle, between the chief employers' and trade-union organizations, that was reached under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister.

The agreement dealt with the adjustment of wages and of family allowances. It provided for a minimum wage of 32 francs for 8 hours of work by adult industrial workers, introduction of holidays with pay, and reduction of hours of work to 40 per week in dangerous and injurious occupations. The clauses of the agreement were later applied to the majority of industries and occupations in the country by collective agreements concluded for the most part under the auspices of the joint committees. There was a rapid extension of joint committees following the conclusion of this agreement.

These committees have now ceased to function, since under the German occupation, wages, hours, and working conditions are subject to regulation either by the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare, acting through the Labor Regulation Officer, or by the Commissioner of Prices and Wages in consultation with appointed committees. Direct negotiations between organized employers and workers have therefore ended.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

The 1926 conciliation and arbitration law imposed an indirect restriction on strike activity, by providing that employees striking before the failure of the attempt at conciliation had been established by the competent committee, lost the right to unemployment benefit for 1 year. However, at the depth of the industrial depression in 1935 there was an increase in the number of strikes, and the strike movement reached its culmination in June 1936 when general strikes occurred throughout the country. These strikes, which broke out without the consent of the unions, were the aftermath of the 1935 currency devaluation and the resultant increase in living costs, bringing demands for higher wages and general pressure for labor reforms. At the height of the strike movement in 1936 nearly 565,000 workers were involved. The new Government which came into power at that time, however, granted many of the labor demands and the strike movement declined in the next 2 years—i. e., 1937 and 1938, the last for which data are available. In 1938 only 32,900 workers were involved in strikes.

The right to strike was formally abrogated by the German occupying authority by a decree of December 1942. It declared that cessation of work, otherwise than by regular termination of a contract, or incitement of others to cease work or to disturb peaceful labor relations in any way constituted an offense against the interests of Germany and was punishable by heavy penalties, even including death.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

Official conciliation and arbitration committees were first established in 1926. Voluntary committees could also be formed by groups of employers and workers in separate industries or groups of industries. If approved by the Minister of Labor they had jurisdiction over disputes arising between the parties concerned, to the exclusion of the official committees. If conciliation failed, recourse was had to arbitration. A distinctive feature of industrial relations in Belgium was the formation of joint industrial committees or councils which the Government encouraged industry to create. Although the councils were instituted by decree and therefore had an official character, they

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had no legal basis and the Government had no power to make their decisions binding. In 1937 there were about 110 national and regional councils which had been instituted by either royal or ministerial decree. As noted above, these councils have ceased to exist.

Cooperative Movement

There was no general unified cooperative movement in Belgium, for the cooperatives, like the trade-union movement, were divided along political and religious lines.

The Belgian cooperatives have taken a variety of forms. The non-agricultural associations include the distributive associations, the cooperative pharmacies—to some of which the sick funds are affiliated—the supply and marketing associations, credit and housing-loan associations, workers' productive associations running cooperative workshops, and the "Nations" (dock workers' associations, each of which tend to concentrate on longshore work for vessels of a given nation). The agricultural group includes associations purchasing farm and home supplies, the cooperative dairies, and a group of credit associations of the Raiffeisen type.

In 1938 there were 3,482 cooperatives of all types with over 850,000 members. In 1937 (the latest year for which data are available) their amount of business totaled over 1.6 billion francs.

The cooperative movement has helped greatly in the political, economic, and moral emancipation of the workers. All branches of the cooperative movement in Belgium appear to have been concerned with the moral well-being of the members, but interest in their political and economic "emancipation" appears to have been particularly characteristic of the working-class associations of the Social-Democratic group. Not only did the latter support the trade-union movement in its fight for better conditions for the workers, but they worked incessantly for the members' cultural and social welfare. Outstanding for such activities is the cooperative association, Le Vooruit, at Ghent, which built a large and complete social-welfare building and maintained sick and maternity benefits, old-age pensions for members and employees, and a disablement fund for employees. La Prévoyance Sociale, an insurance association serving the whole of the workingmen's cooperative movement, utilized part of its earnings for the purchase and maintenance of several properties for the free care of convalescents and children needing special attention.

The well-known People's Houses (*Maisons du peuple*) were created by cooperatives all over Belgium, as community centers, and were supported by the cooperative associations out of their earnings.

Before the outbreak of the present war, the Belgian consumers' distributive associations represented a total of over 580,000 cooperators. Counting their families, the associations were serving about a fourth of the total population. The combined sales (well over a billion francs yearly) represented about 10 percent of the retail trade of Belgium.

Data are not available to indicate to what extent cooperatives suffered in the invasion in May 1940 or how many of them were lost when certain districts ceded to Belgium under the Treaty of Versailles were reannexed to Germany. Whether the cooperatives have been

allowed to continue operation under the German military government has not been reported.

It is known that the business of the General Cooperative Society in 1940 declined to 138,737,000 francs, a drop of 15.5 percent as compared with 1938. It is probable that the local associations are still operating and the bakeries still making bread, but, even if in operation, probably one of their main difficulties would be to obtain goods to sell, in view of the systematic looting that has taken place in Belgium as in all other countries occupied by the Germans.

Various new organizations have been created by the Germans to control agriculture and the collection of the farm produce. How far these may have superseded and eliminated the agricultural cooperatives is not known.

Social Insurance

Compulsory insurance, under State auspices, against the risks of old age and death is provided in Belgium under different systems for wage earners, salaried employees, miners, and seamen. Sickness, maternity, tuberculosis, invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance is organized on a voluntary basis for members of mutual benefit societies, while voluntary unemployment insurance is maintained by the trade-unions. These systems receive State subsidies. Compensation is paid for industrial accidents and listed occupational diseases. The Belgian laws providing for workmen's compensation and old-age and survivors' insurance were continued by the German occupying authorities.

OLD AGE AND DEATH

Wage earners' system.—Compulsory insurance against old age and death for all wage earners was provided by a law passed in 1924. The General Savings and Old-Age Pension Fund administers the act under the supervision of the Minister of Finance and the Minister responsible for social welfare.

The insurance system is financed by equal monthly contributions by employers and wage earners and a State subsidy amounting to 50 percent of the individual pension with a maximum of 1,200 francs a year if the pension is paid from the age of 65 years onward. Workers are divided into 8 wage classes, the combined monthly contribution of employer and employee ranging from 5 francs to 25 francs. In the event of involuntary unemployment or sickness, insured persons are required to pay a contribution of 5 francs for each full month of unemployment or sickness. Supplementary contributions may be made by wage-earning employees and their employers for the purpose of augmenting the pension.

The pensionable age for both men and women is 65, but in the case of men a proportionately reduced pension may be paid as from any birthday from the sixtieth and in the case of women from any birthday from the fifty-fifth. Workers in unhealthful occupations may retire on the same basis at the age of 55 years in the case of male insured persons and 50 years in the case of females.

A widow's pension is payable, provided the marriage took place before the husband began to benefit from the old-age annuity. If the husband and wife are of the same age the widow's pension amounts

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to 35 percent of the pension to which her husband was entitled if death occurred before the age of 41 years, the percentage increasing with each added year up to 50 percent at 55 years and upwards. If there is a difference in the ages of the husband and wife the amount varies in conformity with an established scale. In case the insured person was unmarried, widowed, or divorced, part of the capital is paid to his heirs. The contributions paid to the account of a female insured person are used to provide a pension on her retirement and (if she so elects) an annuity to her dependents in case death occurs before beginning to draw benefit. A State bonus is payable to insured persons of Belgian nationality born between the years 1867 and 1907. Children's allowances are also payable to widows born prior to 1907.

Salaried employees' system.—The pension system for salaried employees, instituted in 1925, covers salaried workers in industry and commerce, in State, Provincial, and communal services, and (under certain conditions) journalists, teachers, musicians, etc. The contributions amount to 3 percent of salary up to a maximum salary of 18,000 francs a year for employees and 4 percent for employers, plus a State subsidy. The pensionable age is 65 for men and 60 for women and the pension is based on the accumulation, in a personal account, of the contributions of the insured person, his employer, and the State. The widows' pensions are at the same rate as those paid under the wage earners' system.

Miners' system.—Compulsory pensions for miners were introduced in 1911. The law provides insurance against invalidity, old age, and death for coal-mine employees, and employees' inspectors of mines, and wage earners in metalliferous mines worked under a concession. Wage earners in underground workings, such as slate quarries, etc., and in coal-byproducts enterprises attached to coal mines are covered by the law if at least 5 wage earners are normally employed.

The workers' contributions amount to $4\frac{1}{2}$ percent of wages and those of employers to $6\frac{1}{2}$ percent of pay roll; the State subsidy amounts in general to 50 percent of the pension, subject to a maximum of 1,200 francs a year. The State also pays one-third of the orphans' allowances and one-fifth of the invalidity allowances. Employees are divided into seven wage classes, the daily contribution ranging from 0.10 franc for the lowest wage class to 0.58 franc for the highest.

The pension is payable for male insured underground workers at age 55 years and for surface workers at age 60. Pensions for female insured persons begin at age 60. The benefit consists of the annuity derived from the contributions, a supplement equal to 188 percent of the basic pension payable by the National Miners' Pension Fund, and the State subsidy. Invalidity pensions are paid to all persons incapacitated for work because of sickness, the amount varying according to the marital status and the length of service of the insured person. Widows' pensions and allowances for children under the age of 16 years are also paid.

Seamen's system.—Sickness, invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance for seamen is based on an act of 1884 which established a Relief and Provident Fund for seamen sailing under the Belgian flag. The law was recast in 1931 to bring its provisions into line with the regulations applicable to salaried employees and wage earners.

Insurance is compulsory for all persons of either sex who are entered in any capacity in the list of crew of a vessel of the Belgian mercantile marine, with the exception of seamen taken on without wages or for a nominal wage, and colored seamen engaged under special conditions.

The contributions of insured persons amount to 4 percent of wages for lower ratings and 5 percent for ships' officers and seamen classed with officers, while the shipowners' contributions are equal to 2.5 percent of wages with a maximum of 24 francs a month for lower ratings and 6 percent with a maximum of 72 francs a month for officers. A State subsidy is also paid.

The sickness benefits include medical and pharmaceutical aid and hospital treatment and a daily cash benefit payable after 1 year's membership and varying according to wages, marital status, and the nature of medical treatment. An invalidity pension equal to the old-age pension is payable up to age 55, when the old-age pension becomes payable. The widow of an insured seaman is entitled to a fraction of the old-age pension acquired by the husband, increased by 15 percent for each child under 18 years of age up to a maximum of 60 percent.

Supplementary benefits were provided by the Government-in-exile in 1943, including establishment of a polyclinic for sick and injured seamen in Liverpool, England; sickness allowances to unemployed seamen; and assistance to pensioners and their dependent children, as well as to widows.

SICKNESS, MATERNITY, TUBERCULOSIS, INVALIDITY, OLD-AGE, AND WIDOWS' AND ORPHANS' INSURANCE

Voluntary insurance against sickness, maternity, tuberculosis, invalidity, old age, and for survivors is organized under mutual-benefit societies which were given a legal status in 1894. Membership is open to persons 18 years of age or over, minors under that age if the parent or legal guardian consents, and married women with the consent of the husband.

The funds of the societies are derived from insured persons' contributions and public subsidies. The amount of the contribution and the nature, rate, and duration of benefits are fixed by the rules of each society. The State subsidy is based on membership and the amount of contributions received for the different types of benefits—medical and pharmaceutical and sickness, invalidity, and old age—while the subsidy to maternity funds consists of a fixed sum for every case assisted and a sum varying with the total amount of contributions received.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

The voluntary unemployment-insurance system originated in local unemployment-relief appropriations which were distributed through the medium of the trade-unions. The system was established by law in 1920 and an order of 1924 provided for the organization of unemployment societies which, if approved and supervised by the Minister of Industry, Labor and Social Welfare, were granted a subsidy equal to 50 percent of the contributions of the members. The subsidy was later raised to two-thirds of the members' contributions.

Insurance is open to all wage-earning employees between the ages of 15 and 65 years, but persons whose unemployment cannot, on

account of the nature of their work, be regularly supervised, such as agricultural workers, domestic servants, independent workers, etc., are excluded.

The contributions of insured persons were increased by 1 franc a week to a maximum of 3 francs in 1934. Each approved society received a grant-in-aid from the State equal to two-thirds of the members' contributions but excluding the increase. Failure to pay the contributions for 13 weeks automatically removed an insured person from the list of members, a qualifying period of not less than 1 year being required for readmission.

The maximum amount of benefit was fixed in 1933 at two-thirds of the average wages paid to workers in the same occupational category in the particular region or to three-fourths of the average wage if there were at least 3 children. The unemployment-benefit scheme was based on need as regards the payment of extended benefits or supplementary benefits (such as those allowed because of family charges).

Daily unemployment benefits were provided for unemployed seamen by the Government-in-exile (London) by an order issued in January 1941. The maximum benefit was fixed at 12 shillings a day for officers and 10 shillings for lower ratings.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Basic legislation on compensation for industrial accidents was enacted in 1903. The law was frequently amended and the various laws were consolidated by an order of December 1931. Compensation for listed occupational diseases was introduced in 1927. All workers engaged in a private establishment under a contract of employment are entitled to compensation, if the employer employs one or more wage earners for at least 2 months in the year. Apprentices (even when not in receipt of wages) and salaried employees covered by the law on employment contracts, whose remuneration does not exceed 24,000 francs a year, are placed on the same footing as manual workers.

Joint accident-insurance funds established by heads of enterprises and insurance companies with fixed premiums, which conform to the regulations, were approved for the purposes of the act and the General Savings and Old-Age Pension Fund was also authorized to undertake insurance against accident risks.

German Controls Over Production and Distribution

Absolute agricultural and industrial controls were imposed by the German Military Command in Belgium during the summer of 1940. Even before King Leopold surrendered, all agricultural and food products, raw materials and products, and semifinished products were requisitioned. The requisitioning did not void ownership, but regulated consumption and use.

A Central Commodities Office was created under the Ministry of Economic Affairs in September 1940, to control production, distribution, and consumption. The office was empowered to issue instructions for the census, storing, production, sale, delivery, and transportation of merchandise. Employers' trade associations were established for each principal industry, early in 1941, to serve the central

office in an advisory capacity. In addition to the trade groups regional economic chambers were formed, embracing all enterprises within an economic region; affiliation of all enterprises with these organizations became compulsory. Advisory bodies representing the different interests—consumers, agriculture, and industry—were appointed for each economic chamber. These groups replaced the old trade associations and in September 1942 the latter were dissolved. It was provided at the same time that no new organizations could be formed without the permission of the chief of the military administration.

To assure the control of production in individual enterprises, the German military authority was authorized in April 1941 to appoint management commissioners who could participate in the supervision of any firm. A further industrial and manpower control put in effect in March 1942 prohibited the establishment or extension of enterprises unless specific authorization was obtained, and authorized the military authority to close down, in whole or in part, existing enterprises and to regulate the extent and nature of the activities of those continuing.

The Groupement Principal d'Artisanat was established in February 1942 as an advisory group to the Government and thus to the German military authority. In June 1943 the eight principal guilds had 120,000 members in the metal, lumber, textile, construction, engraving, leather, food, and service industries. Their activities include adaptation of production to present conditions, solution of raw material problems, competition and prices, coordination of sales, and propaganda.

To secure the same absolute controls over agriculture as over industry, all enterprises (producers, manufacturers, dealers, brokers, etc.) having to do with agricultural products and foodstuffs were enrolled in a National Corporation for Foodstuffs in August 1940. This organization, which is responsible to the Ministry of Agriculture, and ultimately to the German military authority, is empowered to constitute or eliminate groups; to order production of articles and eliminate others; and to levy dues and impose fines. There are two administrative divisions of the corporation—the National Farmers Corporation and the National Food Dealers Corporation. Both are subdivided along provincial, regional, cantonal, and municipal lines. This organization, relegates to the background the powerful farm organization—Boerenbond Belge—whose membership comprised the large majority of farmers.

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¹ From
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Employment and Labor Conditions

Trend of Employment in the Aluminum-Products Industry¹

Summary

THE aluminum-fabrication industry has been greatly affected by the wartime demand for its products. The wage earners in its labor force, who numbered 23,500 in 1939, had increased to 84,000 by November 1943. The effect of the great expansion of plant facilities that took place during this period is reflected in the industry's consumption of primary aluminum, which in 1943 reached a volume 5 times as great as in 1939. This increased activity was stimulated primarily by the demands of the aircraft-production program, as aluminum accounts for about three-fourths of the weight of a military airplane.

The growth of employment was accompanied by a considerably longer workweek, and by a substantial increase in output per man-hour. A larger proportion of women was employed in 1943, and significant changes in the geographical distribution of employment had occurred during the war.

The aluminum-products industry will be seriously affected in the post-war period by the probable loss of most of its aircraft market. Prospects for maintaining a large proportion of the wartime employment depend upon the possibility of an increased use of aluminum in automobiles, and broader application to new uses. Wage-earner employment is not likely to exceed 50,000 in the immediate post-war years unless the more optimistic forecasts of aluminum consumption are realized.

Scope and Geographic Distribution of the Industry

The aluminum-products industry includes only establishments engaged chiefly in fabricating aluminum or refining secondary aluminum from scrap. This classification does not cover the smelting and refining operations involved in the primary and secondary production of aluminum, nor does it include aluminum-fabrication operations conducted in plants whose major product is classified in another industry, such as aircraft engines. The processing of aluminum into fabricated shapes such as castings, sheets, wire, tubing, forgings, and extrusions is the principal activity, although an important segment of the industry produces aluminum utensils for household and hospital use.

The rapid development of the aluminum-products industry during a comparatively short period is attributable to the special physical

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Richard Hymes, under the supervision of Richard H. Lewis, with the cooperation of the Employment Statistics Division.

characteristics of aluminum and to improved methods of alloying and fabricating which have encouraged its adaptation to continually broadening areas of consumption. Accompanying and stimulating the expanded use of aluminum has been the gradual lowering of the price of the basic primary metal from \$5 a pound in 1888, when it was first commercially produced, to 15 cents a pound in 1942.

Although the industry was concentrated geographically in 1939 in a few States, all east of the Mississippi River, no individual State contained a large proportion of the employment. Pennsylvania, which had the largest wage-earner employment, accounted for only 15 percent of the industry's total. However, Pennsylvania and 6 other States (Wisconsin, Ohio, Tennessee, New Jersey, Michigan, and New York) included almost 85 percent of the total. Wisconsin, which was the second largest State in terms of wage-earner employment, was the principal producer of cooking utensils.

Changes in Pattern of Consumption of Aluminum Products

Aluminum is lighter than steel and copper and is a good conductor of heat and electricity. It is also soft and easily worked and relatively unaffected by corrosion. Aluminum has been increasingly applied to industrial uses where these qualities are desirable.

In the early stages of the industry's development the principal use of aluminum was in the manufacture of cooking utensils. Partly as a result of technical progress in fabrication, other markets for aluminum were steadily developed until in recent years industrial uses have become predominant. Aluminum has been utilized in the manufacture of aircraft, automobiles, and railroad equipment principally because of the savings in weight it makes possible. The electrical-transmission-equipment, industrial-machinery, and construction industries also make substantial use of fabricated aluminum.

By 1939 the greatest amount of primary aluminum was being utilized in the manufacture of products for the transportation-equipment industry. In second and third places (but far behind the transportation-equipment industry) were the manufacture of machinery and electrical appliances and the cooking-utensils industry.

In 1940, with the inception of the defense program, the aluminum-products industry entered a period of expansion during which employment has more than tripled and the volume of production has completely dwarfed all previous levels. The basis for this increased demand for aluminum products has been the use of aluminum in aircraft. It is estimated that about three-quarters of the weight of the average airplane is aluminum.

The normal pattern of industrial and civilian use of aluminum products has been greatly modified by the urgent requirements of aircraft production because the Government has had to restrict or eliminate less-essential uses of aluminum. The immediate impact of consumption controls was felt most severely by the producers of aluminum cooking utensils. This section of the industry, which had used 14 percent of the primary aluminum consumed in fabricating plants in November 1939, accounted for only 1 percent by May 1942 (table 1). The use of aluminum products in the electrical-conductor and food and beverage industries had been eliminated altogether by the latter date, and had been cut to less than half the pre-war level in the

machinery and electrical-appliance, building-construction, and metallurgical industries.

On the other hand, foundries and metalworking establishments and the transportation-equipment industry had become vastly more important users of fabricated aluminum. A complete analysis is not available for 1943; the proportion used in aircraft manufacture is about 70 percent, and a large part of the remainder is being exported under the Lend-Lease program.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of the Consumption of Primary¹ Aluminum, by Type of Use²

Use to which aluminum was put ³	Percentage distribution		
	November 1939	May 1942	Estimate after World War II
Transportation equipment.....	29	63	34
Machinery and electrical appliances.....	15	6	12
Cooking utensils.....	14	1	10
Electrical conductors.....	10	0	8
Building-construction.....	8	3	9
Food and beverage.....	6	0	5
Chemicals.....	5	5	5
Ferrous and nonferrous metallurgy.....	5	2	4
Foundries and metalworking.....	4	19	9
General miscellaneous uses.....	4	1	4
Total.....	100	100	100

¹ Although comparable statistics are not available for secondary aluminum, it is believed that the distribution is not sufficiently different to prevent the primary distribution from being used to represent the total.

² Estimated by Aluminum Co. of America in Background Data on Post-War Planning Activities of Aluminum Co. of America, March 2, 1943.

³ Classifications used by the Aluminum Co. are not in all cases sharply drawn. For example, the estimated consumption for foundries and metalworking in May 1942 probably included substantial quantities of castings going to the aircraft program.

When the aluminum requirements for the projected aircraft-production schedules were calculated it was apparent that the existing fabricating facilities would be entirely inadequate. The effective capacity of the industry was also limited by the fact that in most cases the existing equipment could not be used to process the stronger alloys needed in aircraft manufacture. Consequently, it was necessary to replace a large proportion of the industry's machinery as well as to provide additional equipment for the increased production requirements. The magnitude of the necessary expansion of fabricating facilities is indicated by its cost—approaching 1 billion dollars, largely financed by the Federal Government—in contrast to only 8 million dollars spent by the industry for plant and equipment in 1939. The added facilities were designed to produce shapes directly needed for aircraft manufacture. Large increases occurred in plant capacity for manufacture of sheets, extrusions, rod and bar (used in aircraft frames), and the forgings, castings, and cylinder heads that are vital for production of aircraft engines and propellers. The construction program was largely completed by the end of 1943 and several projected plants were eliminated after reexamination of aircraft-production schedules indicated that their output would not be needed.

Some conception of the increase in fabrication of specific types of product may be gained from figures released by the War Production

Board, which compare estimated 1943 output of some of the more important shapes with 1939 production. Production of tubing has been increased to 13 times the pre-war level, sheets to 7 times, rod and wire to 12 times, and extruded shapes to 10 times that level. Output of aluminum forgings, essential to aircraft engines, has been multiplied 45-fold since 1939.

Trend in Volume of Production

Because of the heterogeneous nature of the products, the output of the aluminum-fabrication industry can be measured most readily in terms of the estimated amount of primary and secondary aluminum used in the fabricating plants, as shown in table 2. The prevailing upward trend in aluminum fabrication, interrupted only by the readjustments following World War I and by the cyclical fluctuations in general business conditions, is apparent from this table.

TABLE 2.—Production and Consumption of Aluminum, 1913-43¹

Year	Primary production	Secondary production	Net domestic consumption ²	Year	Primary production	Secondary production	Net domestic consumption ²
Thousands of pounds				Thousands of pounds			
1913.....	47,279	9,308	81,682	1929.....	227,973	96,800	320,543
1914.....	57,979	9,044	84,960	1930.....	229,037	77,200	310,805
1915.....	90,504	17,000	116,798	1931.....	177,545	60,600	177,894
1916.....	115,107	38,000	160,406	1932.....	104,888	48,000	117,888
1917.....	129,861	32,200	152,130	1933.....	85,125	67,000	100,528
1918.....	124,725	30,100	132,380	1934.....	74,177	92,800	229,381
1919.....	128,477	37,382	174,691	1935.....	119,295	102,800	294,446
1920.....	138,042	31,000	198,933	1936.....	224,929	103,000	378,446
1921.....	54,532	17,800	102,695	1937.....	292,681	125,120	481,079
1922.....	73,633	32,580	145,758	1938.....	286,882	77,600	336,645
1923.....	128,658	42,600	208,195	1939.....	327,090	107,894	443,185
1924.....	150,564	54,000	230,030	1940.....	412,560	160,724	614,738
1925.....	140,116	88,000	257,471	1941.....	618,134	207,714	810,289
1926.....	147,386	88,400	299,544	1942.....	1,042,212	396,984	1,574,028
1927.....	163,607	92,400	304,060	1943.....	1,840,000	500,000	2,300,000
1928.....	310,544	95,000	329,253				

¹ Data for 1913-42 are from Bureau of Mines Minerals Yearbook. Estimates for 1943 were made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the basis of published data.

² Sum of primary and secondary production after allowance for net effect of imports and exports of primary aluminum, and after 1928, for changes in producers' stocks of primary aluminum.

Under the impetus of the requirements for aircraft production, the volume of aluminum fabrication rose rapidly, during the war, to new high levels. The annual consumption of aluminum by fabricating plants, amounting to 443,000,000 pounds in 1939, had risen to 819,000,000 pounds by 1941. In 1942, with the volume of fabrication increasing at an accelerated rate as large supplies of ingot became available and new facilities came into operation, the consumption of aluminum amounted to 1,574,000,000 pounds. Another large rise in production occurred during 1943, and it is estimated that the consumption in that year aggregated 2,200,000,000 pounds—5 times the pre-war volume. It is anticipated that peak fabrication will occur in 1944, when the amount of aluminum used may reach 2,900,000,000 pounds.

Trend of Employment, Hours, and Earnings

LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

In meeting the war demands of the aircraft industry for fabricated aluminum, the aluminum-products industry has expanded its employment within 4 years to levels far above those which might have been reached through a normal process of peacetime growth. Wage-earner employment, which averaged 23,500 during 1939, had more than tripled by November 1943 (table 3). By the end of 1940, in response to direct defense requirements and to the demand stimulated by the defense boom in consumer goods, employment moved steadily upward to over 40,000, a gain of over 12,000 from December 1939. In the first half of 1941 there was a definite break in the general upward trend, employment in June reaching only 42,400. This decline in the rate of growth reflected the virtual elimination of civilian production, enforced by the institution of priority controls in March 1941. In the latter half of 1941 employment again resumed its upward movement. The year 1942, when many of the new plants were being manned, saw the most substantial increase in employment achieved during the expansion period. In that 1 year, over 23,000 wage earners were added to the labor force of the industry, or almost as many as the average total employment in 1939. During 1943, although production continued to rise rapidly, the rate at which employees were added to the industry declined. An employment figure of 84,100 had been recorded by November 1943, a gain of over 10,000 from January. The November figure may be almost the employment high for the war, since production appears to have been stabilized at approximately current levels.

TABLE 3.—Trend of Employment, Average Weekly Hours, and Average Hourly Earnings in Aluminum-Products Industry, 1919-43

Year and month	Wage-earner employment: average for year ¹	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings	Year and month	Wage-earner employment: average for year ¹	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
	Thousands		Cents		Thousands		Cents
1919.....	11.4	(²)	(²)	1939.....	23.5	39.2	70.1
1921.....	9.6	(²)	(²)	1940:.....			
1923.....	16.3	(²)	(²)	June.....	32.6	40.1	72.4
1925.....	14.4	(²)	(²)	December.....	40.4	42.6	76.1
1927.....	14.8	(²)	(²)	1941:.....			
1929.....	21.2	(²)	(²)	June.....	42.4	39.3	84.1
1931.....	13.8	(²)	(²)	December.....	49.5	44.8	88.7
1933.....	11.2	(²)	(²)	1942:.....			
1935.....	13.6	(²)	(²)	June.....	65.1	44.8	93.5
1937.....	16.2	(²)	(²)	December.....	72.8	46.2	102.2
1939.....	19.3	39.0	54.2	1943:.....			
1940.....	21.5	41.3	57.0	June.....	74.1	47.7	104.1
1941.....	23.7	40.7	65.9	November.....	84.1	47.1	105.2
1942.....	19.2	36.7	69.6				

¹ Data for 1919-31, and 1933, 1935, 1937, and 1939 are from Census of Manufactures; those for other years are Bureau of Labor Statistics data.

² Not available.

The trend of employment in that part of the industry manufacturing aluminum cooking utensils (not shown separately in table 3), which employed an average of 6,300 wage earners in 1939, has varied considerably from the general trend. Employment had risen moderately above 1939 levels by the spring of 1941, but then declined precipitously when priority controls restricted the quantities of aluminum that could be processed into cooking utensils. In the latter part of 1942, when this segment of the industry succeeded in obtain-

ing a larger volume of war contracts, employment again began to rise, but it still is only slightly above the 1939 level, in contrast to the rest of the industry. Some of these plants have converted to the manufacture of artillery ammunition and bombs.

EMPLOYMENT IN RELATION TO OUTPUT

Although total wage-earner employment in the aluminum-products industry has reached abnormally high levels, the increase has not matched the gains in the total volume of aluminum fabrication. This is partly due to the fact that a substantial volume of fabrication has been carried on outside of the aluminum-products industry proper, in departments of large plants whose final product is aircraft or aircraft parts and whose employment is therefore reported in those industries.

It is evident, however, that a significant increase in output per wage earner has taken place in the aluminum-products industry during the war. A large part of this increase has resulted from the considerably longer weekly working time prevailing in 1943; the workweek, which had averaged less than 40 hours in 1939, had increased to almost 48 hours in 1943, as indicated in table 3. There appears to have been, also, an actual increase in the industry's consumption of aluminum per man-hour, estimated to be perhaps as much as 20 percent. There are two principal reasons for this. The expansion program has resulted in the introduction of large new units with the most modern mass-production machinery, and production has in general been on a larger scale than before the war; and there has also occurred a substantial relative increase in the output of products such as sheets and extrusions, which require fewer man-hours per pound of aluminum used, because of the simpler manufacturing methods required in their production.

CHANGES IN WORKING CONDITIONS AND THE LABOR FORCE

The recruitment and retention of the manpower required for the expanded wartime volume has been achieved in the aluminum-products industry only with significant changes in working conditions and in the make-up and geographic distribution of the labor force. The number of additional workers needed was, of course, somewhat reduced by lengthening the average workweek to almost 48 hours.

Conforming to the prevailing upward trend in wage rates, the gross hourly earnings of workers in the aluminum-products industry had increased during the war from an average of 70.1 cents for the year 1939 to \$1.05 in November 1943 (table 3). This increase corresponded closely with the general increase in workers' earnings in the durable-goods industries from 69.8 cents to \$1.10 per hour in the same period. The hourly earnings of workers in aluminum-fabrication plants in November 1943 were somewhat less than those reported in such war industries as aircraft-engine manufacture, where the rate was \$1.28 and shipbuilding, in which the workers averaged \$1.34 an hour. These and similar wage differences, where reflected within contiguous areas, adversely affected the manpower position of the aluminum-products industry in areas where it was competing with higher-paying industries for the available labor. The higher average hourly earnings in the aluminum-products industry in 1943, as compared to previous years, are not wholly a reflection of increases in basic wage rates, since extra

payments for overtime beyond the 40-hour week raised the earnings considerably when the average weekly hours increased.

In building up its wartime labor force, the industry has found it necessary to increase the proportion as well as the absolute number of its women employees. In 1939, 10 percent of the wage earners were women, the largest proportion being in the aluminum-utensil branch of the industry. In the earlier phases of the war expansion of employment, when male labor was still available, additions to the force consisted mostly of men, and the proportion of women declined until it was only 4 percent in April 1942. After manpower shortages began to affect the industry more seriously, it was forced to recruit larger numbers of women. The proportion of women wage earners had reached 18 percent by October 1943, with further increases in prospect. Although its proportion of women is not so high as that of some of the other war-expanded industries, aluminum fabrication compares favorably with such industries as those manufacturing steel, and iron and steel castings, in which many of the operations are similar to those in the fabrication of aluminum shapes.

War-induced expansion has also significantly affected the geographical distribution of employment. California, Michigan, and Connecticut experienced significant wartime growth, whereas Pennsylvania and Wisconsin have declined in relative importance. Many of the new plants are in labor-shortage areas, thus adding considerably to the industry's manpower problems.

Another factor affecting the maintenance of an adequate labor force has been the high rate of voluntary quits by workers. The quit rate was at especially high levels during 1943, amounting to 6.94 per hundred employees in March, 6.21 in June, and reaching a high of 7.66 in August.² These rates were somewhat above the average quit rate for all manufacturing—6.24 in August 1943.

Post-War Outlook for the Industry

Of all the metals being produced in large quantities for war consumption, aluminum will probably be the one most affected by the sudden return to a peace economy. Although a large proportion of the output of such metals as steel, copper, lead, and zinc is now going into military items, each of these metals has an established and assured peacetime market, the size of which at least approaches the wartime consumption. The wartime output of aluminum products, however, was obtained primarily not by diversion from normal consumption channels but through the addition of vast new facilities. The fact that wartime requirements for aluminum have been largely associated with one product, aircraft, the production of which may fall off sharply after the cessation of hostilities, also complicates the post-war readjustment situation faced by the aluminum-products industry. Purely technical difficulties in reconverting equipment for peacetime production, which may occur in such industries as the manufacture of automobiles or machinery, should not seriously affect the aluminum-fabricating industry. The machinery that has been added to process the so-called hard alloys needed in war will serve as well for many of the products that may be produced for post-war consumption.

² These rates are for aluminum and magnesium fabricating combined, but they are representative of the rates in aluminum plants, since aluminum has by far the larger employment of the two, and the magnesium quit rates do not vary significantly from those in the aluminum-products industry.

Because there are many unpredictable variables which may determine the size of the markets for aluminum in the post-war period, a definite forecast of the volume of aluminum fabrication cannot be made at this time. It is possible, however, to indicate some of the conditions that may affect the trend of production and to evaluate the more reasonable possibilities. If the price of primary and secondary aluminum tends to be lower, as some authorities believe may happen, the use of aluminum may be extended to products in which aluminum was not used on a large scale before the war because of its relatively higher price.

The post-war demand for aluminum in aircraft production will probably be much smaller than its war consumption, but whether it will be considerably larger than the pre-war use is uncertain. Although air transportation will undoubtedly be much more important after the war than before, the large wartime production of transport planes may result in an accumulation of usable planes at the end of the war.

Many optimistic forecasts of aluminum use after the war have been based to a large extent upon an assumed considerably heavier consumption of aluminum by the automobile industry. Leading automobile manufacturers, however, state that they do not expect a significant change in the amount of aluminum per automobile in the immediate post-war years.³ Possibly, greater quantities of aluminum will be utilized in automobile engines, but much of this fabrication would be carried on in the departments of automobile plants and would not affect employment in the aluminum-products industry.

There will exist a reservoir of unfilled demand for aluminum in the civilian products which have been curtailed during the war. Aluminum should also gain new markets because of the technical progress and increased acceptance it has achieved both before and during the war. Important applications of aluminum may be made in railroad equipment, beer barrels, and food containers, as well as in building construction. The probabilities are that although aluminum consumption in the immediate post-war years will not approach the peaks attained during the war, it will be considerably higher than the pre-war volume.

Assuming weekly hours at 40 and a somewhat smaller consumption of aluminum by the industry per man-hour because of reversion to peacetime products and the smaller scale of production, the level of employment in the early post-war years will probably not exceed 50,000 (the level at the end of 1940) unless the more optimistic forecasts of aluminum consumption are realized.

The effect of the reduction in employment from the high levels achieved during the war will be felt unequally by the various types of plants. Those producing forgings, for example, which have been very important during the war, will probably have greater difficulty in adjusting to peacetime consumption. Extrusion plants may be similarly affected. In contrast, those producing sheets or castings may be relatively better situated with regard to the demand for their output. Employment in the industry will be more severely affected in those localities where the greater amount of war expansion has occurred, because so many of the new plants produce those shapes which will be relatively less in demand after the war.

³ For example, C. E. Wilson, president of General Motors, stated: "Nothing important has occurred to change the relationships of aluminum and magnesium to steel as basic materials entering into automobiles." (*Journal of Commerce*, October 21, 1943.)

Wartime Expansion of the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry¹

Summary

THE machine-tool accessories industry—defined by the 1939 Census of Manufactures as including “establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture of accessories for use in machine tools, including dies, machinists’ precision tools, or specialized equipment other than forged or shaped hand tools”—in January 1939 employed 21,800 wage earners. From that point employment rose to a peak of 93,600 in December 1942, more than a four-fold expansion. In the same period, the average workweek was lengthened from 37.1 hours in January 1939 to a peak of 55.4 hours in February 1942, declining to 52.6 hours in December 1942. The greatest amount of manufacturing time was consumed in the middle week in December 1942—4,923,000 man-hours.

The present analysis supplements a similar study of wartime expansion in the machine-tool industry, the results of which were published in the Monthly Labor Review for September 1943 (p. 484).

Employment Trends

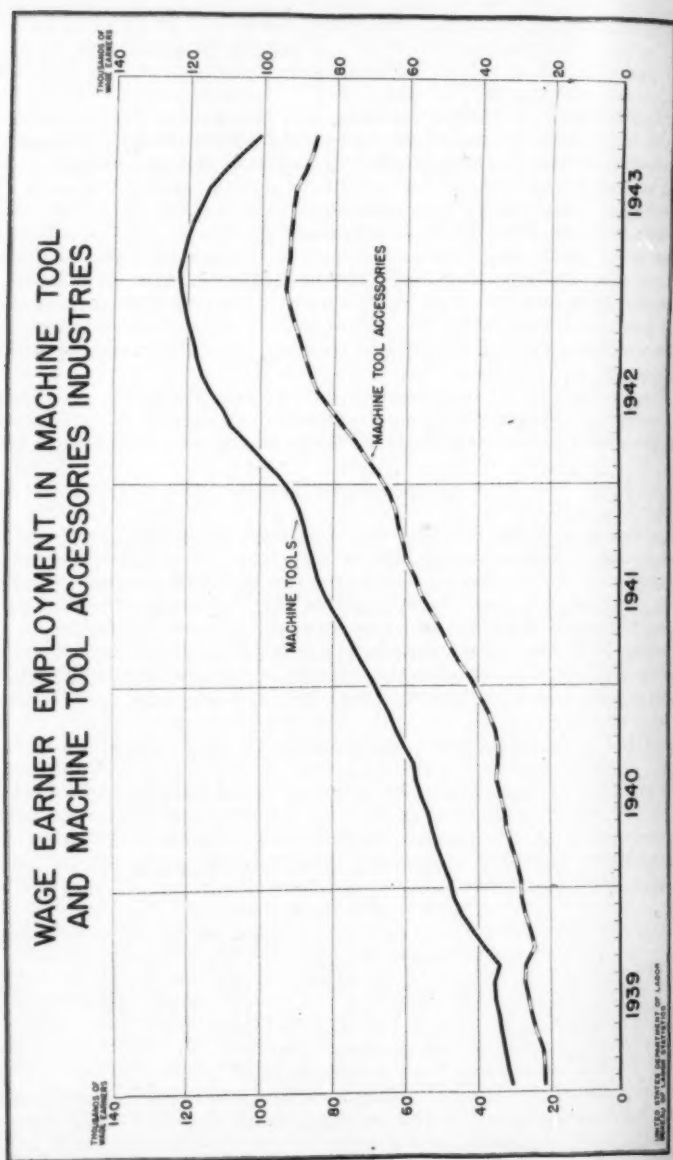
In January 1939 wage-earner employment in the machine-tool accessories industry was 21,800 or about two-fifths of the combined employment in the machine-tool and machine-tool accessories industries. During 1940 and the first half of 1941 the machine-tool industry expanded more than did the machine-tool accessories industry. By January 1942, however, the relative expansion of the accessories industry had equaled that in the machine-tool industry, and employment in each was slightly more than three times as large as in January 1939.

Further expansions were experienced by both industries, and at peak, employment in the machine-tool industry was 4 times and in the machine-tool accessories industry $4\frac{1}{4}$ times as large as in January 1939. The following indexes of wage-earner employment, based on January 1939 as 100, in the machine-tool accessories industry, the machine-tool industry, and the durable-goods group of industries indicate the rate of comparative expansion.

	Machine-tool accessories	Machins tools	Durable goods
January 1939.....	100	100	100
January 1940.....	130	156	119
January 1941.....	194	226	144
January 1942.....	310	309	183
January 1943.....	427	398	236
September 1943.....	392	328	249

Estimates of the number of wage earners employed in the machine-tool accessories industry, by months, from January 1939 through October 1943, are shown in table 1.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics by Clara F. Schloss.



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TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry, by Months, 1939-43*

Year	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)											
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	21.8	21.8	22.3	24.0	25.4	26.4	27.1	27.0	24.7	25.8	27.3	28.1
1940.....	28.4	29.5	30.9	32.4	32.9	33.9	35.2	34.8	34.6	35.6	37.4	39.8
1941.....	42.2	45.6	48.2	50.7	53.2	55.9	57.7	59.8	60.7	62.2	63.0	64.9
1942.....	67.6	71.0	74.0	77.8	81.2	84.5	86.4	88.2	89.7	91.0	92.5	93.6
1943.....	93.0	92.3	92.3	91.8	91.5	90.6	88.3	86.8	85.4	84.5	-----	-----

Employment of Women

The tremendous expansion of all industries connected with the war resulted in a vast increase in the number of women employed. During the initial stages of the war the machine-tool and machine-tool accessories industries, like most of the other manufacturing industries, hired men preponderantly, and it was only as the male labor supply approached exhaustion that women began to be hired in large numbers. In October 1939 the machine-tool accessories industry employed only 3 women in every 100 wage earners, but by October 1942 the proportion had increased to 12 and by April 1943 to 20 in every 100. The actual number of women employed by this industry increased from 800 in October 1939 to 18,000 in April 1943.

Trend of Hours

In order to meet the war needs for machine-tool accessories, expanding employment was accompanied by a lengthening workweek. The average workweek increased from 37.1 hours in January 1939 to a peak of 55.4 hours in February 1942 (table 2). Although reductions have been made since February 1942, the workweek still averaged over 50 hours in October 1943. Because absenteeism and labor turnover probably account for a difference of 2 hours between the scheduled workweek and the hours actually worked, this industry is still operating on a 51-hour schedule.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hours Worked Per Week in the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry, by Months, 1939-43*

Year	Average hours worked per week											
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	37.1	39.6	39.4	40.7	40.8	42.5	42.4	41.9	42.3	42.2	43.6	44.5
1940.....	44.1	44.7	44.9	44.9	46.0	46.6	47.6	47.5	47.7	48.3	48.1	50.6
1941.....	50.0	51.0	50.9	51.0	51.4	50.7	51.2	51.9	52.4	51.8	51.2	54.1
1942.....	55.0	55.4	55.1	54.6	54.5	54.0	52.7	52.9	51.5	52.5	52.5	52.6
1943.....	52.2	52.2	52.1	52.2	51.7	51.2	49.0	50.2	49.1	50.8	-----	-----

The combined effect of increased employment and the lengthened workweek is reflected in the increase in total man-hours worked per week. In January 1939 the aggregate hours per week averaged

809,000 (table 3). By December 1942, the peak month, total manufacturing hours per week had increased to 4,923,000, more than 6 times as many as in the midweek of January 1939.

TABLE 3.—*Aggregate Man-Hours Worked Per Week in the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry, by Months, 1939-43*

Year	Number of man-hours worked (in thousands)											
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	809	863	879	977	1,086	1,122	1,149	1,131	1,045	1,089	1,190	1,230
1940.....	1,252	1,319	1,387	1,455	1,513	1,580	1,676	1,653	1,650	1,719	1,799	2,014
1941.....	2,110	2,326	2,453	2,586	2,734	2,834	2,954	3,104	3,181	3,222	3,226	3,311
1942.....	3,718	3,933	4,077	4,248	4,425	4,563	4,553	4,666	4,620	4,778	4,856	4,923
1943.....	4,855	4,818	4,809	4,792	4,731	4,639	4,327	4,357	4,193	4,293

Trend of Earnings

The high average hourly earnings in the machine-tool accessories industry reflect the vast amount of overtime work, shift differentials, and wage-rate increases. In January 1939, earnings averaged 76.5 cents per hour, but by October 1943 they had risen to \$1.14 per hour. Even more striking is a comparison of average weekly earnings in this industry—\$27.12 in January 1939 as against \$56.42 in August 1943. In October 1943 this industry ranked eighth in weekly earnings. Higher weekly earnings are shown only in the following industries: Shipbuilding; locomotives; aircraft engines; automobiles; cash registers, adding and calculating machines; engines and turbines; and sewing machines.

TABLE 4.—*Average Weekly Earnings in the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry, by Months, 1939-43*

Year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	\$28.38	\$29.70	\$29.39	\$30.53	\$32.31	\$33.75	\$34.81	\$34.06	\$33.25	\$32.45	\$33.01	\$34.13
1940.....	32.59	32.68	32.73	33.27	34.68	35.46	36.41	36.15	35.68	35.84	35.74	36.10
1941.....	37.90	40.09	41.48	42.28	43.23	42.39	43.57	45.05	45.85	45.79	45.88	46.80
1942.....	51.48	52.41	52.57	52.53	53.52	53.30	52.35	52.86	52.39	53.65	54.70	55.79
1943.....	55.36	56.12	57.02	56.94	56.93	57.07	54.64	56.42	55.76	57.54

Weekly earnings in the machine-tool accessories industry in October were almost \$6 more than the average for all the durable-goods industries. This resulted from a workweek $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours longer than the average for the durable-goods industries and an hourly earnings figure almost 5 cents above the average.

The trend of average hourly earnings from January 1939 through October 1943 is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Average, Hourly Earnings in the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry, by Months, 1939-43

Year	Average hourly earnings (in cents)											
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	76.5	75.0	74.6	75.0	79.2	79.4	82.1	81.3	78.6	76.9	75.7	76.7
1940.....	73.9	73.1	72.9	74.1	75.4	76.1	76.5	76.1	74.8	74.2	74.3	75.3
1941.....	75.8	78.6	81.5	82.9	84.1	83.0	85.1	86.8	87.5	88.4	89.6	92.2
1942.....	93.6	94.6	95.4	96.2	98.2	98.7	99.3	99.9	101.6	102.2	103.9	105.7
1943.....	105.5	106.8	108.7	109.2	110.2	111.4	111.5	112.2	113.4	113.5

Labor Turnover

The proper interpretation of wartime turnover data requires information on the usual peacetime turnover. The total separation rate of 6.38 per 100 employees for the machine-tool accessories industry in September 1943 was undoubtedly high, but can best be gauged by comparing it with the separation rate of 1.75 in October 1939 (table 6). The increase in the separation rate for this industry parallels that for all manufacturing as a whole.

Quits have always been the dominant component of total separations in this industry. The quit rate increased from 1.04 in October 1939 to 4.16 per 100 employees in September 1943. The lay-off rate, on the other hand, decreased from 0.65 in October 1939 to a low of 0.03 in October 1942 and then fluctuated considerably as a result of the completion of various war orders and the curtailment of others. Extremely high discharge rates were prevalent throughout 1943 in most of the war industries, and were caused in large part by the employment of many submarginal workers.

A comparison of the total separation rates with the accession rates reflects the fact that this industry has passed its peak. In a period of vast expansion (October 1940) the total separation rate was only 2.43, as compared with an accession rate of 10.22. In February 1943 the accession rate, 5.97, was only slightly higher than the separation rate of 5.15. After March 1943 separations ran ahead of accessions, indicating the tapering off of the huge war jobs in this industry.

TABLE 6.—Labor Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in the Machine-Tool Accessories Industry

Year and month	Total separation	Quits	Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession
1939: October.....	1.75	1.04	0.06	0.65	(1)	10.51
1940: October.....	2.43	1.66	.07	.54	0.16	10.22
1941: October.....	3.34	2.03	.35	.86	.10	5.11
1942: October.....	6.42	3.45	.67	.03	2.27	7.99
1943:						
January.....	5.42	2.93	.80	.18	1.51	6.77
February.....	5.15	2.43	.63	.36	1.73	5.97
March.....	6.69	4.02	.84	.08	1.75	5.73
April.....	6.12	4.29	.79	.20	.84	5.60
May.....	5.03	3.11	.62	.46	.84	3.82
June.....	6.99	3.72	1.05	1.41	.81	4.84
July.....	6.83	4.23	1.06	.60	.94	4.28
August.....	6.22	4.04	.81	.44	.93	4.59
September.....	6.38	4.16	.89	.35	.98	4.36
October.....	5.21	3.23	.78	.51	.69	3.76

¹ Included with quits.

Relationship of Absenteeism to Plant Administration¹

A STUDY of the problem of absenteeism, made by members of the Research Staff of the Harvard School of Business Administration at the request of the War Production Board, brings out the importance of management policies in determining the attitudes of working groups toward avoidable absences.

The study involved a statistical measurement of absenteeism in three metalworking companies in the same locality, making the same product and subject to the same wartime problems. The three companies, with a combined working force of over 20,000 employees, were concerned with metalworking from casting shop to the finished product—a product of direct importance to the winning of the war.

In making the study it was decided to take account only of absences for a full day or more, regardless of the reason for them, and to apply this measure to the records of the three companies in casting shops, sheet mills, and a manufacturing department. Only men were employed in the casting shops and sheet mills, but in the manufacturing department some women were also employed.

In order to follow the trend of absences in a given group it was decided first to consider only those employees who had been on the pay roll throughout the year 1942. In the casting shop of company A there had been 151 such employees, in that of company B, 201, and in company C, 148. These groups represented approximately 69 percent, 84 percent, and 74 percent, respectively, of the total number of workers in the casting shops of the three companies at the beginning of 1942. The same standard was used for the other departments studied.

In two of the companies the investigators found an attitude toward the problem of absenteeism which is rather general, namely, that the causes are external to a given company and therefore beyond the company's immediate control. "The third company was found to have a system of training its foremen as personnel experts, responsible for the absorption and training of new workers, for studying their technical and human problems and helping in every way to solve them, and for encouraging easy communication between the workers and top management. This was a very concrete, systematic handling of human relationships, making for general goodwill toward the management. The company was also notably alert and flexible in adapting itself technically to new situations."

The method of pay is a good example of this. In the first two companies, a worker is paid by the amount of metal he himself actually pours. So if his furnace is emptied toward the end of his shift, there is no incentive for him to recharge it for the next shift. The third company, however, provides this incentive. Workers are paid by the total amount of metal poured by all three shifts combined, so it is to their advantage to recharge the furnaces for the next shift. This device, along with others of similar character, made for a spontaneous discipline imposed by the group on the individual worker.

Another example: The third company was the only one of the three having an orderly system of predictable days off, on which the men could count. But the success of the system depended on the whole shop keeping up to schedule; so here gain, the group spirit tended to keep the individual workers up to standard.

¹ Data are from *Absenteeism—Management's Problem*, by John B. Fox and Jerome F. Scott (Harvard University, Graduate School of Business Administration, Bureau of Business Research, 1943) and news release of December 7, 1943.

It is pointed out that the superior management record of this company resulted in a markedly better absentee record, as compared with the other two companies. Absenteeism is a symptom of a worker's attitude, and his attitude depends in very large measure upon the quality of attention that management pays to his problems, both technical and human. In the third company, "the negative effect of the outside forces making for absenteeism was offset to a great extent by the positive effect of the management's efforts to counteract it."

The investigators found the management factor to be so important that "they ended by defining confused or inadequate management as an actual cause of absenteeism, in and of itself." Inadequacy on the management level contributed to the irritating uncertainty in a worker's state of mind, which "consciously or unconsciously caused him to decide on a given day not to cope with the difficulties of getting to work and sticking on the job."

Conclusions of Investigators

A number of other conclusions from this study are briefly as follows:

1. "A widespread popular misconception in the area under study—to the effect that absenteeism affects the large mass of workers—was strikingly disproved. The investigators found many groups in the community holding the belief that labor as a whole was letting down the bars and damaging the war effort. They usually resented this with a good deal of heat. But when facts and figures were compiled, this picture was changed. For every worker with clearly abnormal absence in the shops under study, there were on the average eight or nine workers whose records were reasonably normal. Indeed, the consistency with which this pattern was duplicated (a) in the various shops within each company, (b) for different types of workers, (c) at different periods, and (d) in all the companies studied, was one of the most remarkable aspects of the study. * * *

"The investigators found the widespread misunderstanding of these facts in the community to be a dangerous matter. At a time when absentees were stigmatized as unpatriotic, when government, industry, and society were considering penalties without discrimination between groups and individuals, there was serious risk of alienating the large group of conscientious workers."

2. A new statistical approach to the absentee problem was developed in the course of the study, which went far toward neutralizing the influence of medical absences and isolating for study the chronic, excessive absence. An absence of several consecutive days was regarded as just one absence, regardless of the number of days the worker was out.² The report points out that "Obviously, equal weight should not be given in the figures to one worker who was out once during the year for 22 days, due to an appendicitis operation, and to another who was absent 22 separate times during the year, 1 day at a time."

3. A possible method of forecasting the trend of absenteeism in a given department or company was suggested. Absence figures for the workers with better attendance records (i. e., with an average of

² The report gives an account of how this statistical method was developed and checked. "The procedure described could be adapted to other enterprises or industries wishing accurate knowledge of their absentee problems."

five absences or less per year) were separated from the records of other workers. "It was found that a lessening of interest and an increase of absence among the 'better attenders' prefigured more absenteeism to come among the workers at large."

4. To the extent that this community was representative of others, it appeared that there is a general lack of concrete information on the absentee problem and a need for further research—especially through case studies of comparable companies.

It is pointed out that the conditions uncovered in these three metal companies and their community are not claimed to be duplicated elsewhere.

* * * but the executive who reads their findings can scarcely fail to have salient questions opened up. Is the management factor being given the attention it deserves in his field? In any curative treatment, is careful distinction being made between wilful, irresponsible absenteeism, and those workers who are innocent of it? Is it known which are which? Should factual studies be made? Can the statistical method presented in this report be utilized? Is management throwing up its hands at the absentee problem, thinking the causes to be outside its control? Is it within the control of management to counteract these causes more effectively than it now suspects? It is the larger purpose of the report to raise these questions.

Manpower in the German War Economy

GERMANY'S manpower is the principal factor in its productive capacity—the factor on which practically all others primarily depend. The manpower problem has been intensified in recent months by the calling of new contingents of workers into military service and by the dislocation caused by bombings in industrial centers.

However, with reserve camps and emergency dwellings, which are being constructed hastily in the vicinity of industrial centers to relieve the urgent need of shelter for bombed-out workers, the manpower of the war plants can probably be kept together without taxing the railways with shuttle traffic from nearby towns still free from bombing. The bare maintenance of war production at the existing level nevertheless is not enough for the armies' needs. As, in addition to the more than 1½ million men obtained through various comb-outs of industry since the summer of 1942, they must also have new soldiers to make good the losses in casualties and prisoners, desired increases in production are difficult if not impossible of achievement.

In "Greater Germany" 6 to 7 million foreign workers and 1½ to 2 million prisoners of war were employed in November 1943. A substantial proportion of the foreign labor was working in agriculture. The employment of a high proportion of foreign workers, even in German war industry, was not regarded as politically dangerous as long as key supervisory positions could be filled with Germans or Austrians, or with Fascist workers of other nationalities. Many skilled workers were deferred from military service, to perform such supervisory functions. There are signs that the number of foreign skilled workers employed has now reached the political danger line.

In the spring and late autumn of 1943 another comb-out of industry took place, and even 60-year-old men had to report to the draft authorities. Since the end of 1942, however, German war industry has had to depend to an increasing extent upon foreign skilled labor,

particularly from western Europe, as the large-scale training of German unskilled labor (unfit for military service) proved unsuccessful.

The weakening of the political control in the factories, as a result of the rapid increase in the number of foreign workers, compelled the Nazis to resort to other methods to maintain or even increase output. Further concessions were made to Russian workers, the largest group of forced labor, by raising their wages and providing better food in many localities. Concessions were also made to Polish workers, the second largest group, who were granted larger supplementary rations where output showed an increase. Deportations from France, and apparently also from Holland and Belgium, were slowed down and, instead, Italian war prisoners were taken to Germany where in many cases they work side by side with their countrymen who came to Germany "voluntarily."

At the same time, attempts were made to increase output in the key enterprises of the engineering and mining industries by cutting piece-work scales. The use of the "wage-screw" as a means of stimulating output affected German and foreign workers alike. In enterprises in the Reich proper, the ratio between German workers and foreign workers (including war prisoners) is about 5 to 3, for both skilled and unskilled male and female labor. In most establishments, therefore, the tempo of production largely depends upon the zeal of the German element.

Administrative Changes in Manpower Control

In 1942, Sauckel, Gauleiter for Thuringia, took from the Minister of Labor Seldte the control over the labor exchanges in Germany and the occupied territories. The experiences of the air war in the spring of 1943 made necessary a decentralization of the labor administration. In April 1943, Robert Ley, chief of the Labor Front, was compelled to close down the central offices of that organization, and to reduce the secretaries to subordinate propaganda jobs in the Party district offices.

After a vain attempt by Ley to reorganize the Reich Chamber of Labor in order to guide the work of the 42 district chambers of labor in Germany and Austria concerned with industrial morale and discipline, the control of foreign workers was entrusted in July 1943 to a new Central Office for the Care of Foreign Workers, under the joint direction of Sauckel, Goebbels, and Ley. Sauckel remained in charge of the rounding up of foreign workers; it became Goebbels' task to issue propaganda directives to the 15 district inspectors of the Central Office and to the editors of the papers for foreign workers; and Ley supervised the foreign Quislings responsible for spying upon foreign workers and preventing fraternization between German and foreign workers.

In September 1943 the labor-exchange machinery, which in the spring of 1943 had been coordinated with the Party districts, was made subordinate to them. Since the heads of the district labor exchanges also serve as labor trustees, with wage-fixing powers, the above move also eliminated the Labor Front on the district level. For the purpose of simplifying the importation of foreign labor, the several labor exchanges were assigned specific recruiting areas in occupied territories.

In August 1943, a new Reich labor-distribution office was created under the Ministry of War Production, to direct the enforcement of labor-control measures, and to study possibilities of economizing manpower. There were 34 district labor-distribution officers supervising about 5,000 factory labor-distribution officers. In enterprises employing more than 300 persons, a factory labor-distribution officer was nominated by the employer and confirmed by the Reich labor-distribution officer. Smaller establishments were assigned collectively to a labor-distribution officer.

Labor Exhaustion and Opposition

New measures are being directed against German and foreign workers who refuse to work at night in zones of hazard. Women who previously worked half time are now made to work full time in the factories. Basic piece rates have been cut in many factories, compelling workers to work longer or more intensively in order to maintain their earnings. The warnings of the Labor Front that longer hours mean lower performance indicate, however, that workers are not equal to the increased demands.

The deliberate opposition of large sections of workers against the heavier demands, however, confronts the German authorities with far graver problems. Certain German newspapers, representing various industries, have been reporting recently that German piece workers were resisting the attack on wage standards by working slowly, and that in the factories spokesmen of the workers were firmly defending their wage claims, even in opposition to representatives of the Labor Front. Reliable reports from various parts of Germany indicate, however, that the workers' resistance is mostly defensive in character. Although comparatively small anti-Nazi organizations in factories are known to exist, these groups are careful not to expose themselves by premature action, as the Gestapo could easily wipe out the organization. In a number of German plants the deliberate activity of German and foreign workers has for a long time past been hampering production.

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Progress of the Manpower Program¹

ON December 1, 1943, the civilian working force of the Nation totaled about 51,500,000, according to the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. This, he said, has been made possible by a number of factors.

There has been an extended development of local employment-stabilization plans, together with vigorous action on the part of major organizations of labor, agriculture, and management to make them effective. At present there are 150 area and 11 regional plans in effect. Fully operating stabilization plans have been established in all critical West Coast areas and in other parts of the country.

Ceilings have been established in many areas as a means of reducing anticipated labor requirements. As a case in point, it is stated that ceilings established for West Coast shipyards have made possible a more accurate channeling of workers and reduced the labor requirements by 97,000, without significant change in volume of shipyard actions.

Another factor contributing to the progress made in the manpower situation is reported to have been the establishment of controlled referral programs. As of November 15, 1943, such programs were a part of 78 employment-stabilization plans. In 10 cities and towns covered by these plans (Mobile, Ala.; Panama City, Fla.; Brunswick and Savannah, Ga.; Monroe, Mich.; Dayton, Lima, Sydney, and Springfield, Ohio; and Seattle, Wash.), all workers are subject to controlled referral; in 11 areas all male workers are thus affected; and in 61 areas such referral is required for all workers last employed in an essential activity. Many other areas have controlled referral for workers in specified shortage occupations. It is estimated that, in all, 4,600,000 workers are subject to controlled referrals beyond the minimum which would be mandatory under regulation 7.²

Extension of the minimum 48-hour workweek to critical labor-shortage regions has helped the manpower situation. Efforts to estimate the full effect of that extension, however, are difficult. In Akron the increased hours made unnecessary the hiring of an estimated 10,000 additional workers, and the Detroit office of the War Manpower Commission stated that, because of the longer workweek, from 12,000 to 20,000 vacancies did not have to be filled. At the same time, liberal exemptions have been granted in a number of communities; clerical workers, newspapers, utilities, banks, and retail stores are frequently exempted.

¹Data are from U. S. Office of War Information-War Manpower Commission. Press releases December 1 and 8, 1943 (PM 4476 and PM 4480).

²U. S. War Manpower Commission. Manual of Operations. Title III, section 3-7; Regulation No. 7 Governing Employment Stabilization Program.

There has been evidence of increased emphasis on manpower-utilization programs in shortage areas and the inauguration of labor-saving policies on the part of industrial management. In this connection, the Commission has shown an increasing tendency to challenge reported labor requirements and to insist that adequate utilization surveys be made to support major increases and stated labor requirements.

Three other developments are aiding the manpower situation: (1) Production schedules have been readjusted from an "incentive" basis to a "feasible expectation" basis, thereby permitting a sound readjustment in labor requirements. (2) Special recruitment programs, such as that for the nonferrous-metal mines, have averted a critical shortage and have led to the amassing of protective stockpiles of copper, aluminum, and other metals. (3) Coordination action has been taken to cushion the effects of "cutbacks" in the production program resulting from shifts from certain types of production to others, in order to meet strategic requirements. Two examples of such action were cited: The prompt placement of ordnance workers released in Lowell, Mass., into jobs in a bearing plant in Connecticut; and the signing up of workers in Washington, Pa., for other jobs before the "cutback" went into effect.

Results of West Coast Manpower Program, to November 15, 1943

A considerable conservation of labor, with no resultant decrease in production, has marked the operations of the West Coast Manpower Program, according to the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. Labor requirements of major West Coast airframe plants—one of the two leading wartime industries of that region—have, he reports, been sharply reduced by the inauguration of this program. Employment ceilings which had been recently established by manpower committees for the 7 major firms provided for a relatively small employment expansion (15,000) above November 1, 1943, employment levels. Previous estimates of manufacturers had indicated that 332,706 workers would be needed at peak production, whereas the ceilings referred to above totaled only 308,065 workers. These ceilings, it was stated, were subject to revision following a conference of officials of the War Production Board and the War Department with West Coast aircraft manufacturers, dealing with minimum additional labor required to reach peak production.

Noticeable improvement in labor turnover during October 1943, as compared with September, was reported by 12 major West Coast aircraft plants. Total accessions increased slightly during October, the average rate per 100 employees rising from 6.9 in September to 7.1 in October. Total separations dropped substantially (from 7.6 to 6.4) during the same period. Turnover rates from August 1 to October 31, 1943, were as follows:

	Accessions	Separations
August.....	5.8	7.5
September.....	6.9	7.6
October.....	7.1	6.4

The employment trend in these firms from September 1 to November 1, 1943, was as shown in the accompanying statement.

Total on—	Number employed
September 1.....	291, 451
October 1.....	288, 634
November 1.....	292, 507
Ceiling at peak production period.....	308, 065

¹ Preliminary data.

Major West Coast shipbuilding employers had previously reported to the War Manpower Commission that they anticipated an increase of approximately 130,000 workers in order to reach peak employment, and to meet future production schedules. As a result of employment ceilings, future labor requirements were reduced to slightly more than 33,000 workers, a 75-percent downward revision of previous estimates, representing only slightly more than a 7-percent increase over the number employed on November 1, 1943. Of the 28 major yards, 15 reported that the institution of employment ceilings will result in either a decrease in employment or in an expansion of fewer than 500 workers each. The most drastic reduction in labor requirements occurred in the San Francisco area, containing well over 40 percent of the total Pacific Coast labor force. Although the 9 major yards in the area previously reported a combined need for more than 68,000 workers in order to reach peak employment, the established ceilings allow for an expansion of only 6,500.

The employment trend for 28 major West Coast shipbuilding yards from September 1 to November 1, 1943, was as follows:

Total on—	Number employed
September 1.....	464, 715
October 1.....	459, 153
November 1.....	453, 067
Ceiling.....	486, 962

Turnover rates from August 1 to October 31, 1943, per 100 employees, are shown below:

	Accessions	Separations
August.....	12. 3	13. 2
September.....	11. 4	12. 4
October.....	10. 9	11. 7

Government Action Regarding Railroads ¹

THE President, on December 27, 1943, by an Executive order, directed the Secretary of War to take over the railroads, in order to avoid interruption of transportation by threatened strikes.

Faced with strikes called by three railroad brotherhoods for December 30, 1943, the President called upon every railroad man to continue at his post of duty and pointed out that any strike would be considered as a strike against the Government of the United States.

Carriers taken over under this order did not include electric street passenger railways, interurban, or local public-transit systems. However, if and when the Secretary of War found it necessary he could, by subsequent order, assume possession, control, and operation of all or any part of any transportation system.

¹ White House, Press release, December 27, 1943 (Executive order, December 27, 1943) and Federal Register, December 29, 1943 (p. 17395).

The Secretary was directed to permit the managements of the carriers affected to continue their respective managerial functions to the maximum degree consistent with the purpose of the order. Except as the Secretary should from time to time otherwise provide, the boards of directors, trustees, receivers, officers, and employees of such carriers were to continue the usual and ordinary operation of the carriers, and all existing contracts, agreements, and obligations of the roads were to remain in full force and effect. Payment of regular financial obligations and expenditures for other ordinary corporate purposes were to be made.

The order directed the Secretary to provide protection for all persons employed or seeking employment on the railroads and to recognize the rights of the workers to organize and to bargain collectively. He was authorized to prescribe the compensation to be received by employees, subject to any approval required by applicable statutes, Executive orders, and regulations relating to economic stabilization. To the extent deemed practicable by him, the Secretary was empowered to maintain the working conditions specified in existing contracts between the carriers and their employees.

Possession, control, and operation of the carriers affected by the order were to be terminated by the Secretary when no longer required to prevent interruption of transportation service.

Acting under the Executive order of December 27, 1943, the Secretary immediately took possession of the Nation's railroads, designating the commanding general of the Army Service Forces to act for him.² Direct responsibility for operations rested with the chief of transportation in the Army Service Forces. These officials were to have assistants from the ranks of the carriers and from labor.

The Secretary of War stated that there was to be no alteration in railroad schedules, in service, or in personnel because of the change.

Wage decision of the President.—Before signing the Executive order taking over the railroads, the President rendered his decision as arbitrator of the disputes affecting the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers. He affirmed the increase of 4 cents per hour which had previously been granted by the Stacy Emergency Board and approved by the Economic Stabilization Director. In addition, in considering claims not previously presented to the Stacy Board nor to the Economic Stabilization Director, he granted a further increase of 5 cents per hour, effective immediately, in lieu of claims for time and a half for overtime in excess of 40 hours a week and for expenses while away from home. He also approved a vacation of 1 week a year with pay at the basic hourly rate of employment. The President directed that his award be effective for the duration of the war without prejudice to the rights of either party thereafter to request a change in the agreement. The President further stated that he had been advised by the Economic Stabilization Director that his decision was in conformity with the national stabilization program.

The President, on January 8, 1944, offered this same wage adjustment to the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen, the Order of Railway Conductors, and the Switchmen's Union of America. The offer was made on two conditions—first, these three labor organi-

² War Department, Press release, December 28, 1943.

zations, which had refused the President's arbitration, were to sign an agreement on the same terms and conditions as those signed by the Engineers and Trainmen and second, they were to cancel the strike order which they had postponed during the period of Government operation.³

The wage controversy which threatened to result in strikes was settled by agreements between the carriers and the Brotherhoods of Firemen and Enginemen, Conductors, and Switchmen, and the 15 nonoperating brotherhoods. When those agreements were reached, the President ordered the Secretary of War to return the railroads to the owners, and the Secretary returned the roads at midnight of January 18, 1944.

Control of Agricultural Wages and Salaries⁴

ON December 9, 1943, the Director of the Office of Economic Stabilization gave the War Food Administrator jurisdiction over all wages and salaries of agricultural labor receiving \$5,000 per annum and less. These workers were defined as persons employed in farming in any of its branches—the cultivation and tillage of the soil, dairying, the production, cultivation, growing and harvesting of agricultural or horticultural commodities, and the raising of livestock, bees, or poultry.

The Director pointed out that the general level of salaries and wages for agricultural labor is substandard; that a wide disparity now exists between salaries and wages paid to labor in agriculture in comparison with the remuneration of labor in other essential war industries; and that the retention and recruitment of agricultural labor is of prime necessity in supplying the United Nations with needed foods and fibres.

Because of these facts, increases are to be allowed in wages and salaries of agricultural labor up to \$2,400 per annum without prior approval, unless the War Food Administrator has established specific wage ceilings for such labor. When the War Food Administrator determines and gives public notice of specific wage ceilings with respect to areas, crops, and classes of employment, or otherwise, no payments can be made above the wage rates so established, without the approval of the Administrator.

This ruling applies even in those cases in which the employer has been making higher payments pursuant to a contract or other agreement. There is, however, to be no reduction in the wages or salaries for any particular work below the highest wages paid therefor between January 1, 1942, and September 15, 1942.

³ Letter from the President to the Secretary of War, January 8, 1944.

⁴ Office of Economic Stabilization. U. S. Office of War Information, Press release, December 10, 1943.

Suspension of 8-Hour Law for Agriculture Department Laborers and Mechanics

EXECUTIVE Order No. 9401, of December 7, 1943, suspended with respect to the Department of Agriculture the law limiting to 8 hours per day the services of laborers and mechanics employed by the Government upon any public work in this country.¹ The law provided that in case of extraordinary emergency this 8-hour limitation could be suspended. The Executive order pointed out that such an emergency existed, that there was a shortage of laborers and mechanics, and that the Department of Agriculture, including the War Food Administration, was engaged in public-work activities within the United States which were essential to the prosecution of the war.

Wages of laborers and mechanics in that Department, the order stated, are to be computed on a basic day rate of 8 hours of work, with overtime to be paid at time and a half for all hours in excess of 8 in any 1 day.

Similar orders covering the War and Interior Departments were issued on December 28, 1942, and July 7, 1943, respectively.²

¹ Federal Register, December 15, 1943 (p. 16773).

² See Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 257) and September 1943 (p. 471).

Industrial Accidents

Industrial Injuries, October 1943

OCTOBER reports from 11,231 manufacturing establishments listed 29,006 disabling injuries experienced by employees in the course of their work during the month. The reporting plants employed 7,571,000 workers, or nearly 47 percent of the total manufacturing employment for the month. Assuming that the reporting establishments constitute a representative sample, the total number of disabling injuries experienced by employees in all manufacturing plants of the United States during October therefore may be estimated as about 62,000.

The actual time lost because of these injuries has not yet been recorded, as many of the injured workers had not recovered at the time the October reports were prepared. Twenty days, however, is a conservative average of the time lost because of each disabling injury. On this basis the October injuries represent the direct loss of 1,240,000 man-days of production, without any allowance for the continuing economic loss resulting from the many deaths and permanent impairments included in the totals. This direct loss alone is equivalent to a month of full-time employment for about 48,000 workers.

At the end of October, 0.4 percent of the reported injuries were known to have been fatal and 3.7 percent had definitely developed into permanent physical impairments. It is reasonably certain, however, that these proportions will be increased when the final outcome of injuries presumed to be only temporary at the end of October becomes known.

In comparison with preceeding months the October reports indicated a slight decline in the volume of injuries. This improvement was reflected to some extent in the individual industry frequency rates for the month. For 36 of the 78 listed industries the October average frequency rates were at least a full frequency-rate point lower than the corresponding rates for September. For 22 of these industries the October rate was the lowest monthly average so far recorded in 1943. In contrast, however, there were 14 industries which had frequency rates a full point or more higher in October than in September, and there were 2 industries for which the October rates were higher than those of any other months of the year. The highest October frequency rate was 57.8 for the sawmill industry; the lowest was 4.9 for the cement industry.

Cumulative injury-frequency rates for the first 10 months of 1943 ranged from an average of 5.5 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked in the women's clothing industry to an average of 63.9 in the sawmill industry. Seven other manufacturing industries had 10-month average frequency rates of less than 10. These low-hazard industries were sighting and fire-control equipment, 6.7;

radios and phonographs, 7.7; rayon and allied products (chemical), 8.0; cement, 8.4; soap and glycerin, 8.6; men's clothing, 8.7; and iron and steel, 9.9.

On the other hand there were five industries, in addition to sawmills, which had 10-month average frequency rates of over 40. These were forgings (iron and steel), 41.3; foundries (iron and steel), 42.9; plate fabrication and boiler-shop products, 46.7; concrete, gypsum, and plaster products, 49.0; and planing mills, 55.5.

Industrial Injury-Frequency¹ Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, October 1943 with Cumulative Rates for 1943

Industry ²	October 1943		January-October 1943: Cumulative frequency rate	1942: Annual frequency rate
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate ³		
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	38	13.1	18.7	18.3
Aircraft.....	48	9.8	10.1	11.4
Aircraft parts.....	210	12.8	15.5	8.6
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over.....	374	21.9	26.1	17.2
Ammunition, small arms.....	26	13.2	17.2	(9)
Baking.....	10	14.2	18.4	16.2
Book and job printing.....	17	11.0	13.9	10.6
Boots and shoes, not rubber.....	264	14.1	14.0	8.6
Canning and preserving.....	46	15.9	19.2	30.0
Carpets and rugs.....	6	8.6	13.1	14.1
Cement.....	90	4.9	8.4	7.3
Chemicals, industrial.....	340	18.1	18.7	18.0
Clothing, men's.....	447	9.6	8.7	7.7
Clothing, women's.....	350	6.0	5.5	4.8
Coke ovens.....	24	12.1	16.7	22.0
Concrete, gypsum and plaster products.....	112	42.2	49.0	46.4
Confectionery.....	8	19.2	17.8	15.2
Construction and mining machinery.....	122	31.6	32.9	28.4
Corrugated boxes.....	80	31.6	39.7	26.7
Cotton goods.....	29	19.6	16.0	16.1
Cutlery and edge tools.....	29	23.7	24.6	28.6
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides.....	58	23.4	22.1	15.4
Dyeing and finishing.....	14	25.8	22.7	24.8
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	657	10.4	11.4	7.3
Engines and turbines.....	75	18.0	20.2	(9)
Explosives.....	36	14.8	12.0	6.4
Fabricated structural steel.....	138	36.8	33.5	40.7
Fiber boxes.....	26	25.8	29.2	16.1
Folding boxes.....	90	30.2	24.2	21.0
Food-products machinery.....	22	45.5	35.6	18.1
Forgings, iron and steel.....	155	37.7	41.3	38.9
Foundries, iron and steel.....	598	41.7	42.9	48.7
Furniture, except metal.....	36	22.8	29.4	21.7
General industrial machinery.....	656	24.4	24.9	19.7
Glass.....	29	15.5	18.6	20.6
Guns and related equipment.....	157	18.4	17.9	12.7
Hardware.....	32	29.4	24.4	21.1
Iron and steel.....	220	9.2	9.9	16.4
Knit goods.....	18	9.2	10.8	7.7
Leather.....	12	15.7	24.5	30.1
Machine shops, general.....	134	19.4	27.9	(9)
Metalworking machinery.....	736	17.7	19.6	21.6
Motor vehicles.....	128	9.9	13.1	11.2

¹ The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.

² A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.

³ Computed from all reports received for the month. Not based on identical plants in successive months.

⁴ Not available.

⁵ Cumulative from June 1.

⁶ Cumulative from May 1.

Industrial Accidents

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Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, October 1943,
with Cumulative Rates for 1943—Continued

Industry	October 1943		January-October 1943: Cumulative frequency rate	1942: Annual frequency rate
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate		
Motor-vehicle parts.....	70	28.3	26.3	31.9
Nonferrous-metal products.....	361	23.1	24.4	23.6
Paints and varnishes.....	39	18.4	20.3	17.4
Paper.....	201	27.8	32.2	26.5
Paper and pulp (integrated).....	75	25.8	26.6	28.4
Petroleum refining.....	167	10.7	12.3	10.7
Planing mills.....	36	43.6	55.5	37.6
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products.....	76	41.8	46.7	(1)
Plumbers' supplies.....	22	17.0	19.0	20.1
Pottery.....	8	21.4	23.6	15.5
Print.....	20	21.8	31.5	29.5
Radio and phonographs.....	213	7.5	7.7	5.9
Railroad equipment.....	42	17.6	20.8	17.4
Rayon and allied products (chemical).....	17	7.7	8.0	8.4
Rubber boots and shoes.....	12	12.6	12.4	8.6
Rubber tires.....	34	13.7	13.7	11.9
Sawmills.....	31	57.8	63.9	61.7
Set-up boxes.....	224	12.3	16.8	13.3
Shipbuilding.....	249	26.9	29.6	33.1
Signaling and fire control equipment.....	44	6.1	6.7	7.2
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	199	32.9	35.9	44.8
Small arms.....	53	11.8	11.1	9.1
Smelting and refining (nonferrous).....	195	25.2	29.3	29.4
Soup and glycerin.....	14	6.4	8.6	10.3
Special industry machinery.....	83	23.6	23.2	25.2
Stamped and pressed metal products.....	276	26.8	31.8	20.6
Steam fittings and apparatus.....	60	28.8	34.6	39.7
Stove and furnace, not electric.....	56	30.7	35.4	33.7
Tanks, military.....	25	12.0	12.8	9.3
Tank parts, military.....	69	15.6	19.8	7.7
Textile machinery.....	11	19.7	16.3	18.3
Pin cases and other tinware.....	36	19.3	18.9	20.3
Tools, except edge tools.....	49	24.7	25.4	24.3
Wire and wire products.....	157	22.9	22.2	21.6
Woolen goods.....	39	19.0	19.9	17.9

(1) Not available.

(2) Cumulative from April 1.

Cooperation

REA Cooperatives in 1942

Summary

UNDER the Federal act establishing the program for the electrification of rural areas 795 cooperative associations had been formed by the end of 1942. Funds advanced to cooperatives under the act up to that time aggregated \$342,569,157. Nearly 385,000 miles of power line had been constructed, almost 360,000 miles had been put into service, and over 950,000 patrons were being served at that time.

According to a report of the Rural Electrification Administration,¹ from which the data in this article are drawn, 868 organizations had received loans by the end of 1942, of which 795 (91.6 percent) were cooperatives, 52 were publicly owned power districts, and 21 were private power companies. Of \$460,467,729 allocated for loans, \$436,844,510 (94.9 percent) were earmarked for cooperatives.

Advances had been made by the end of 1942 for lines to serve an estimated 1,343,172 customers. Of these, 1,012,284 had been connected and were actually being served—nearly 95 percent of them by cooperative associations. The following statement shows the number of customers actually being served by energized lines of the REA system at the end of each year since the inauguration of the program and, for the last two years, the number and percent served by co-operatives:

	Total consumers connected	* Served by cooperatives	
		Number	Percent of total
1935-36.....	693	(1)	---
1936-37.....	19,611	(1)	---
1937-38.....	104,528	(1)	---
1938-39.....	268,000	(1)	---
1939-40.....	549,604	(1)	---
1941.....	902,266	² 850,453	94.2
1942.....	1,012,284	³ 957,211	94.5

¹ No data.

² 706 (of 793) associations reporting.

³ 777 (of 795) associations reporting.

Loans to Cooperatives

The Federal act establishing the program directed the Rural Electrification Administration, in extending loans, to give preference to cooperative associations and publicly owned systems. Under this

¹ Allotment, Construction, Operating, and Financial Statistics of REA-Financed Systems, December 31, 1942. Washington, Rural Electrification Administration, 1943.

authority the Administration had, by the end of 1942, allotted funds for cooperatives in a total amount of \$436,844,510, and \$342,569,157 of this had actually been advanced to them.

Of the total number of cooperative associations in the REA system (795), the largest number had been started in Texas and these associations had received the largest amount of loans—about 28% million dollars (table 1). Over 20 million dollars had been lent to cooperatives in each of the two States of Minnesota and Iowa. Every State in the Union except Connecticut, Massachusetts, Nebraska, Nevada, and Rhode Island had cooperatives which had taken advantage of the benefits of the act; in Nebraska and Nevada the rural electrification program is being carried on by means of public power districts.

TABLE 1.—Number of REA Associations in Receipt of Loans, and Amount Advanced, December 31, 1942

State	Total cooperatives	Associations reporting	Funds advanced	State	Total cooperatives	Associations reporting	Funds advanced
All States.....	795	777	\$342,569,157	Montana.....	15	12	\$3,011,812
Alabama.....	21	21	7,559,747	New Hampshire.....	1	1	1,439,833
Arizona.....	1	1	831,754	New Jersey.....	2	2	491,020
Arkansas.....	18	18	7,946,502	New Mexico.....	5	4	989,570
California.....	4	3	1,182,070	New York.....	6	6	51,085
Colorado.....	18	18	5,970,064	North Carolina.....	30	29	12,888,822
Delaware.....	1	1	1,009,489	North Dakota.....	8	8	3,290,781
Florida.....	12	12	3,196,828	Ohio.....	28	28	16,548,519
Georgia.....	44	43	16,040,027	Oklahoma.....	23	23	8,887,180
Idaho.....	9	9	3,232,324	Oregon.....	12	12	2,974,576
Illinois.....	27	27	17,653,020	Pennsylvania.....	13	13	9,831,155
Indiana.....	44	44	19,218,834	South Carolina.....	24	22	7,457,132
Iowa.....	49	49	22,057,752	South Dakota.....	11	11	1,717,159
Kansas.....	24	22	7,725,507	Tennessee.....	19	18	11,443,001
Kentucky.....	26	25	11,487,167	Texas.....	72	71	28,736,515
Louisiana.....	13	13	7,875,724	Utah.....	3	3	952,849
Maine.....	4	4	521,047	Vermont.....	3	3	693,384
Maryland.....	2	2	1,655,064	Virginia.....	15	15	8,016,756
Massachusetts.....	13	13	12,451,366	Washington.....	14	13	4,774,425
Michigan.....	52	52	24,648,441	West Virginia.....	2	2	633,877
Minnesota.....	23	22	10,448,615	Wisconsin.....	31	31	16,208,329
Mississippi.....	37	36	15,300,787	Wyoming.....	12	11	2,171,813
Missouri.....				Alaska.....	2	2	284,423

Coverage of Cooperative Systems

Contracts had been let by cooperative electricity associations for 384,805 miles of line, of which 93.2 percent (358,566 miles) had been put into operation by December 31, 1942 (table 2). Consumers served (including both members and nonmembers) numbered 957,211.

In point of numbers of patrons served, the leading States were, in order, Texas (78,425), Indiana (65,596), and Georgia (62,131), but in each of 4 other States—Iowa, Minnesota, Ohio, and Tennessee—over 50,000 farms were being provided with light and power by cooperative systems.

TABLE 2.—Miles of Line Under Contract and Energized, and Consumers Served by REA Cooperatives, December 31, 1942

State	Mileage under loan contract		Line energized		Consumers served	
	Number of associations reporting	Miles (estimated)	Number of associations reporting	Miles	Number of associations reporting	Number of consumers
All States.....	771	394,905	731	358,566	727	967,261
Alabama.....	19	10,016	18	9,669	18	20,300
Arizona.....	1	433	1	388	1	70
Arkansas.....	17	9,437	15	8,187	15	22,401
California.....	4	850	3	764	3	2,178
Colorado.....	18	8,839	17	5,370	17	11,300
Delaware.....	1	972	1	985	1	2,000
Florida.....	12	4,039	12	3,324	12	8,301
Georgia.....	41	20,219	41	20,353	41	62,121
Idaho.....	9	3,047	9	2,925	9	6,118
Illinois.....	27	19,483	26	18,015	26	60,210
Indiana.....	44	20,944	43	21,301	43	68,300
Iowa.....	48	24,318	47	23,457	47	82,201
Kansas.....	24	10,862	21	9,231	21	16,004
Kentucky.....	25	12,628	25	12,543	25	40,100
Louisiana.....	12	5,514	13	5,491	13	14,002
Maine.....	4	525	4	383	4	1,000
Maryland.....	2	1,499	2	1,686	2	4,304
Michigan.....	13	9,866	13	9,465	13	20,000
Minnesota.....	49	26,903	46	26,510	45	54,540
Mississippi.....	22	12,948	22	13,073	22	41,000
Missouri.....	37	21,277	35	16,845	35	30,121
Montana.....	15	3,245	12	3,022	12	6,900
New Hampshire.....	1	1,474	1	1,373	1	2,642
New Jersey.....	2	441	2	410	2	1,700
New Mexico.....	5	1,023	4	914	4	1,007
New York.....	6	2,124	1	1,390	1	6,400
North Carolina.....	28	12,217	28	11,140	28	24,161
North Dakota.....	7	4,395	6	2,764	5	5,401
Ohio.....	28	18,913	28	16,852	28	50,000
Oklahoma.....	22	11,219	22	11,004	22	21,041
Oregon.....	12	3,822	12	2,312	12	6,700
Pennsylvania.....	13	10,036	13	9,163	13	27,200
South Carolina.....	22	7,326	21	9,627	21	27,200
South Dakota.....	11	3,473	7	2,152	7	2,700
Tennessee.....	19	9,908	18	9,595	18	37,000
Texas.....	69	37,322	66	36,304	65	70,000
Utah.....	3	782	3	636	3	2,000
Vermont.....	3	938	3	902	3	2,000
Virginia.....	15	8,292	15	8,210	15	22,000
Washington.....	14	5,506	13	4,668	13	1,500
West Virginia.....	2	601	2	430	2	1,500
Wisconsin.....	30	13,766	27	13,682	26	32,000
Wyoming.....	12	3,273	10	1,962	10	4,300
Alaska.....	2	90	2	92	2	00

Operations of Electricity Cooperatives

Some 720 reporting associations had received in income \$44,392,720 in 1942 and had made net earnings of \$10,828,080 (table 3).

REA loans are generally made on a 25-year amortization plan which provides that the association shall make no payment of either interest or principal during the first 30 months; it then begins to pay interest on the accumulated interest and principal, through the next 18 months; and thereafter it pays interest and amortization on the loan at a rate that increases, during specified periods, from \$3 per \$1,000 of loan to about \$5.35 per \$1,000.

Up to the end of 1942 delinquency on payments by all REA borrowers (cooperative and other) amounted to less than 1 percent and the total payments in advance of schedule was about 45 times as large as the total overdue.

	Interest	Principal
Number of systems with—		
Overdue amounts.....	28	6
Advance payments.....		497
Amounts due.....	\$19,400,805	\$6,078,604
Paid on amounts due.....	\$19,257,665	\$15,334,911
Overdue amounts.....	\$84,208	\$64,677
Advance payments.....		\$9,325,029

TABLE 3.—Total Income and Net Earnings of REA Cooperatives, 1942

State	Total income		Net income	
	Number of associations reporting	Amount	Number of associations reporting	Amount
All States.....	720	\$44,392,720	718	\$10,828,080
Alabama.....	18	1,064,554	18	263,482
Arizona.....	1	72,867	1	9,809
Arkansas.....	15	797,599	14	157,723
California.....	2	91,378	2	14,662
Colorado.....	16	724,711	16	73,454
Delaware.....	1	144,976	1	44,204
Florida.....	11	324,822	11	23,940
Georgia.....	41	2,118,390	40	604,646
Idaho.....	9	348,368	9	57,125
Illinois.....	25	2,438,990	25	688,748
Indiana.....	43	2,963,458	43	968,276
Iowa.....	49	3,182,346	49	1,057,898
Kansas.....	21	784,718	21	126,606
Kentucky.....	25	1,547,162	25	419,490
Louisiana.....	13	1,166,580	13	93,559
Maine.....	4	35,121	4	14,665
Maryland.....	2	206,356	2	57,855
Michigan.....	13	1,224,337	13	242,522
Minnesota.....	47	3,400,339	47	1,120,363
Mississippi.....	21	1,573,478	21	432,056
Missouri.....	35	1,858,293	35	374,757
Montana.....	12	430,798	12	100,391
New Hampshire.....	1	91,249	1	124,396
New Jersey.....	2	67,663	2	4,568
New Mexico.....	4	148,959	4	25,683
New York.....	26	1,239,694	26	91,733
North Carolina.....	6	361,399	6	51,178
North Dakota.....	27	2,344,316	27	586,478
Ohio.....	22	1,029,461	22	206,218
Oklahoma.....	11	306,573	11	36,132
Oregon.....	13	1,216,150	13	314,719
Pennsylvania.....	20	892,724	20	142,660
South Carolina.....	7	193,423	7	38,372
South Dakota.....	18	2,632,180	18	763,354
Tennessee.....	66	3,307,899	66	826,411
Texas.....	2	79,272	2	17,835
Utah.....	3	91,410	3	212,438
Vermont.....	15	1,055,986	15	80,974
Virginia.....	13	487,451	13	18,563
Washington.....	2	40,580	2	480,820
West Virginia.....	27	2,090,462	27	63,560
Wisconsin.....	9	258,097	9	1445
Wyoming.....	1	18,131	1	

¹ Less.

The report notes that the weighted average age of all REA-financed systems (public, cooperative, and private) was only 2½ years at the

end of 1942. "Those failing to show adequate earnings are with few exceptions the younger systems with undeveloped loads and only a portion of projected miles energized and consumers connected. The abrupt curtailment of new construction during the war period also has created very definite operating problems for these relatively immature rural electric systems."



Cooperatives in North Dakota, 1942-43

OVER 116 million dollars in business was done by the cooperative associations in North Dakota in the fiscal year 1942-43. These included not only distributive associations (petroleum and store associations) and various kinds of agricultural cooperatives (grain elevators and shipping associations) but also a considerable number of credit unions and insurance associations. Almost 78 percent (\$3,683,803) of the associations' net earnings of \$4,711,184 was returned to the members in patronage refunds and interest on share capital. These data were compiled from a recent North Dakota report.¹

The accompanying table gives the details of operation for each of the types of associations. The "miscellaneous" group includes 7 telephone associations, 4 newspapers, 4 electricity associations, 2 cold storage associations, 3 miscellaneous marketing associations, 1 production credit association, and 1 cooperative cafe.

Operations of Cooperatives in North Dakota, 1942-43

Type of association	Number of associations	Membership	Amount of business	Net earnings	Patronage refunds and interest on capital	Total assets	Paid-in share capital
All types.....	598	154,489	\$116,723,540	\$4,711,184	\$3,683,803	\$27,666,278	\$6,438,579
Petroleum associations.....	112	24,464	7,681,978	871,018	732,389	3,263,406	1,286,000
Store associations.....	13	1,475	584,341	36,323	28,598	222,466	75,000
Insurance associations.....	31	68,171	\$ 31,475,891	149,712	-----	826,308	(?)
Credit unions.....	78	9,132	4,468,369	14,102	9,996	579,782	541,000
Elevator associations ²	268	39,138	63,006,004	3,127,427	2,502,067	17,158,596	3,888,000
Creamery associations.....	28	10,266	6,726,040	327,771	294,352	1,396,636	878,000
Cream-shipping associations.....	13	1,896	729,351	22,330	18,010	36,974	18,000
Livestock-shipping associations.....	33	4,818	2,300,957	3,736	69	9,725	172
Miscellaneous types.....	22	5,129	3,750,609	158,265	103,320	4,165,400	242,000

¹ Number of policyholders.

² Insurance written during year.

³ Nonstock organizations.

⁴ Loans made during year.

⁵ Includes "exchange" associations.

⁶ Number of patrons.

¹ Bulletin No. 47: Second Annual Statistical Report [of North Dakota Division of Cooperatives] for the Past Fiscal Year. Bismarck, Department of Agriculture and Labor, 1943.

Post-War Reconstruction

Post-War Recommendations of Secretary of Labor

THE 1942-43 annual report of the United States Secretary of Labor recommends certain measures to "facilitate the orderly return of the industrial population to normal peacetime ways." These actions are, in substance, the following:

Revocation of all permits which have been issued for the employment of minors for more than 8 hours a day, or the employment of minors in ordinarily prohibited occupations.

Revocation of all permits for the work of women beyond 8 hours and for the work of women on the "graveyard shifts."

Promotion of reduction of hours of labor under the Fair Labor Standards Act to 40 hours a week, to spread the work.

Revocation of Executive Order No. 9240, and abolition of Sunday work, holiday work, and overtime work as far as possible.

"Unfreezing" of labor, under the War Manpower Commission's right to issue directives, thus reestablishing the freedom and mobility of American labor.

Making the U. S. Employment Service into a strong and effective instrument for moving workers out of war industries and into civilian industries.

Creation of a fund, which might be loaned through the U. S. Employment Service, to help workers who have no funds with which to get back home or to reach a place where there might be opportunity for employment in civilian occupations.

Encouragement of the immediate retirement of those over 65 on their old-age benefits.

Encouragement of persons under 20 to resume their education in schools or colleges or vocational-training institutes.

Assistance to women who are merely pin-money workers, and who came into the labor market only because of the war need, to leave the labor market and make opportunity for others who must work regularly.

Provision of proper Government assistance, in the form of loans, to businesses which can reconvert quickly to the manufacture or distribution of civilian goods for which there is a market and which will provide large employment.

Encouragement and revival of the luxury, transportation, and amusement industries and trades which are healthy and good for the public, judged by normal standards.

Development of Government aid for settling certain qualified groups on the land, with a scientific program of assistance in crop planning and marketing and supervision.

Opening up of planned public works in those localities where there appears to be a considerable pool of permanent residents for whom no immediate private employment is available.

Renewal of the techniques of stabilized employment which were partly developed during the last depression, such as orders in advance; extension of rural electrification, manufacturing, Government and other capital-industry orders on a regular basis, etc.

Release of the housing programs now found to be necessary, and provision of appropriate Government assistance to private construction, as well as to public programs for housing improvements.

Encouragement of normal purchasing by the public, through use of war savings on a regular and systematic basis rather than speedy, reckless spending.

Encouragement of purchase of permanent consumers' goods, like refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, furniture, kitchen utensils, automobiles, necessary textiles, etc.

Encouragement of cultural and recreational activities as a means of employment as well as a method of achieving a sound society and balanced economy.



British Proposals for Full Employment After the War¹

MAINTENANCE of "full employment" in Great Britain after the war is nearly universally regarded in that country as the chief long-run problem and as such is being widely discussed. Numerous proposals have been made by labor, employers, governmental officials, political parties, the press, and research bodies. Varying degrees of Government participation are advocated, depending upon these agencies' views on public control. The British people seem to be convinced that reasonably full employment can be maintained, and are prepared to support whatever measure of State control may be necessary to attain it, provided the essential citizen liberties are preserved.

Both the Labor Party and the Trades Union Congress have strongly supported an increasing measure of governmental control. The ultimate goal of the Labor Party is a socialized State. As yet, neither group has presented its detailed plan of procedure. Representatives of workers are conferring with the Government on reconstruction problems. Employer bodies, independent economists, and research agencies have made a number of concrete proposals. No complete Government program has been announced, but a statement by Home Secretary Herbert Morrison urged the need for maintaining many public controls after the war. Full employment, he said, is only part of the story of full prosperity. A program of increased and more efficient production in industry and agriculture is needed also. The outstanding proposals of different groups are summarized in the present article.

Definition of Terms

Although the term "full employment" is defined in different ways, there appears to be agreement in Britain that the existence of a labor

¹ Abstract from reports by Edith T. Denhardt (No. 11897) and E. F. Penrose (No. 11925), United States Embassy, London, supplemented from the proceedings of the annual conferences of the Labor Party and Trades Union Congress in 1943.

reserve is consistent with its attainment. The Nuffield College Social Reconstruction Survey defines it as a situation in which the unfilled vacancies are not appreciably lower than the number of unemployed persons, so that such unemployment as exists at any time is caused by the normal lag between the loss of one job and finding another. Registration of not over a half million unemployed persons is regarded by the Economist (London) as compatible with full employment if pockets of continuing unemployment in any area or industry are disposed of quickly. Sir William Beveridge considers an average of over one and a half million unemployed consistent with "avoidance of mass unemployment." According to Lever Bros. & Unilever, Ltd., the size of the labor reserve will depend upon the level at which economic activity in general is stabilized, and the aim should not be to maintain full employment of the largest possible labor force (as is necessary in wartime). This company does not believe that a mathematical formula can be found for ascertaining the proper level of the labor reserve or of economic activity. The transition from the dislocated conditions created by war to the proper level of peacetime economic activity and employment is a problem confronting post-war Governments. National registration should be perfected, to furnish the authorities with current figures on employment and unemployment, as such a register would be a guide in applying economic measures to stabilize business activity at the desired level.

Most of the discussions on full employment are restricted to a description of the causes and the possible cures of the business cycle. Planning is directed toward the prevention of "mass" unemployment arising from cyclical fluctuations in business activity. Such unemployment affects the greatest number of persons and is the most difficult to handle. "Structural" unemployment that occurs in depressed areas and depressed industries can be alleviated only if a reasonably high level of full employment exists throughout the country; it is therefore beyond the scope of the subject here discussed.

Sir William Beveridge points out that in attaining full employment the preservation of essential citizen liberties must be insured. The presence of democratic rights makes the problem of maintaining full employment more complex than it would be in a totalitarian society. According to the Times (London), "it is by no means a simple matter to remove unemployment and leave everything else the same." Full employment is just one aspect of an economic policy which should increase national income, make its flow regular, and improve its distribution. The Economist (London) states that efficiency should not be sacrificed to attain full employment.

Cyclical Unemployment and Its Cure

Different branches of British opinion are in accord on certain of the causes and cures of cyclical unemployment. Fluctuations in business activity result primarily from fluctuations in the demand for capital goods, that is, in investment. To stabilize employment, the rate of investment must be regularized, but this is hampered in an economy where investment is made in anticipation of profit. Therefore, a Government policy is required to insure necessary stability in investment, and the "unbalanced budget" is deemed

proper policy in periods of deficient private investment. Adequate social-security provisions and greater equality in income are needed in an expansionist economy.

Disagreement centers on the question of the proper measure of direct Government control over investment. The proposals in this respect vary according to the views of the respective groups as to the desirable changes in the existing pattern of industrial organization and the existing arrangements for the control and direction of investment and other aspects of economic activity. Opinions also differ regarding the place that direct Government measures for increasing consumption should have in a full-employment policy.

INVESTMENT POLICY

It is recognized in the discussions reviewed that activity in capital-goods industries and in raw-material production fluctuates much more violently than in other pursuits, and that fluctuations in general economic activity are caused by changes in the rate of investment. No particular attention is given to the cause of fluctuations in investment, but the conclusion is general that the Government must do more to stabilize investment than simply prepare a program of public works. Action advocated consists of measures designed to maintain the profit in private investment, to extend public ownership, to control certain types of industry, to coordinate fiscal and budgetary policy, and to create a national investment board for the coordination of all investment activities and the establishment of priorities.

In the recommendations regarding direct Government investment, a distinction is made between "normal" Government expenditures for roads, etc., and "abnormal" public investment which is part of a stabilization policy. The Economist (London) has defined "public works" as abnormal investment, that is, investment which would not be undertaken in the same volume if it were not for the needs of a policy of stabilization. Controversy exists as to the extent to which normal direct Government investment should be expanded in the interest of long-run stabilization, but no group expresses opposition to public works as a factor in stabilization.

In their report (*A National Policy for Industry*), 120 industrialists place upon the Government direct responsibility for relieving unemployment in slack periods but advocate limitation of activity to public works, such as new roads, water-supply systems, and housing. The Economist is opposed to direct Government investment in remunerative industries (although it fears the economic effects of unremunerative investment on a large scale, such as in public buildings, bridges, etc.); it favors plans whereby the Government will secure sufficient control over investment without extending public ownership.

The real division of opinion arises with respect to whether or not the Government shall have a wider sphere of operation than public works. As already shown, the Economist and the 120 industrialists are opposed to widening the sphere of the Government. The Liberal Sub-Committee on the Relation of the State to Industry takes a middle course in expressing the view that the Government must broaden its field of investment if mass unemployment is to be prevented. Nuffield College (in its statement on *Employment Policy and Organization of Industry after the War*), the London Times, and

Political and Economic Planning (known as P. E. P.) favor an appreciable extension of direct public investment. For example, it is stated in the Nuffield report that the purpose of public works is to maintain employment and also to contribute to the community's stock of productive assets and other capital goods, thereby maintaining the demand for consumer and capital goods alike. P. E. P. states that one great inherent weakness in the concept of public works is that they are regarded as purely supplemental to private enterprise and as such should not encroach on private investment. To the extent that fluctuations in private investment cause cyclical fluctuations and may continue to do so, notwithstanding improvements, additional public works might be helpful. A Times correspondent urges a "bold and expansive" public investment policy to replace the system whereby the State undertakes to find employment for the unemployed until private industry can reemploy them.

At its 1943 conference, the Labor Party endorsed its executive council report which calls for a wide measure of central regulation and control, including early action to secure public control and ownership of certain industries (i. e., monopolies and enterprises rendering public service), with the ultimate goal of socialization of the economy, as already stated. Clement Attlee, a member of the British Government and of the Labor Party national executive, reaffirmed the Party's "view that over a wide field of activity there must be public ownership and public control." Another speaker stated that the Party was not in a position to submit a final report on a number of subjects relating to the speed with which the transfer from private ownership to public ownership might be accomplished.

No detailed post-war plan has been made public by the Trades Union Congress. Public ownership of basic industries and services was suggested as among the main approaches to reconstruction at the congress held in September 1943. The conference adopted a resolution at that time urging the Government to clarify its post-war policy on social and economic affairs, and asking the TUC to authorize a plan for reconstruction to maintain full employment and to decide upon the degree of national ownership of industry. Up to the time of the September conference the work of the TUC in the field of post-war problems was chiefly exploratory. The membership was represented on a number of bodies appointed to deal specifically with reconstruction matters, as, for example, the Labor Party's Central Committee on Reconstruction Problems and the Ministry of Works and Buildings Consultative Panel. To supplement such activity the TUC was instrumental in securing the formation of the Reconstruction Joint Advisory Council under the chairmanship of Sir William Jowitt, Minister without portfolio. The TUC and the two leading employer bodies are represented on the council, the purpose of which is "to secure a mutual exchange of views * * * on important issues of general policy arising out of post-war reconstruction." Within the TUC, committees are studying the problems involved in nationalization of specified industries (e. g. coal, power, and transport) and control or nationalization of financial machinery.

Government measures to stimulate private investment have a prominent place in nearly all of the discussions. The 120 industrialists who favor only a narrow public-works program advocate the

fullest public assistance to private industry, even to the point of taking risks that would be uneconomic for private investment. Similarly, the Economist (London) endorses State aid, including tax concessions, to keep normal investment at the required level. Both the Liberal Sub-Committee and the London Times foresee a need for extending public control for the same purpose, as they are sceptical of attaining the desired results otherwise. During the transitional period from war to peace, the Liberal Party maintains, it will be the direct responsibility of the Government to assist all industries which have closed down or converted to war purposes "to get going again, giving financial aid where necessary." Lever Bros. places on the Government the responsibility for maintaining the regularity of capital investment. The firm stresses the conviction that the exercise of public control over production should not extend beyond the period of acute shortage of materials immediately after the war, and that the Government should not have control over the distribution of investment funds. Indirect public control over the cost and price structure through monetary and budgetary policy would be the Government's chief weapon in its attack on the business cycle.

Nearly unanimous approval has been given to the principle of an "unbalanced budget" and to the establishment of an extraordinary budget to supplement the regular budget. The Government took the lead in adopting a new approach to the evaluation of the economic position in 1941, when a "white paper" was issued stating that the war had made it clear that problems must be considered in relation to real resources at the country's disposal and that budgets are only the instruments for making use of these resources. The problem in wartime is not to balance the budget in the traditional sense but to prevent inflation.

The groups whose views on direct Government investment have been reviewed agree that such investment should play a minor role. Conflict of opinion exists between those who believe that private investment can be maintained by indirect measures and those who are of the opinion that more direct Government measures are needed to control private investment. With the exception of the Socialists, agreement exists that the State should help to maintain the profitability of private investment in periods of trade setbacks. It is also recognized that carefully planned and timed public works and coordinated monetary and budgetary policy are needed. Doubt exists, however, that these measures are sufficient to maintain full employment.

Nonbusiness groups and some business groups therefore endorse the extension, in some degree, of public control and ownership over monopolistic industries. Another basic recommendation is the establishment of a national investment board.

Among those who favor some extension of public ownership there is substantial agreement, according to the reports abstracted, that public utilities (fuel, power, and transport), medical services, and, to a large extent, housing should be under public control. Public ownership of the monopolistic basic industries (iron and steel and shipbuilding) is also favored by many groups. Some measure of public control is advocated widely for the semimonopolistic industries.

In endorsing the creation of a national investment board, the Times envisages a general plan for investment, in which the most advantageous development would take precedence, and investment in private

industry would be rationed under a system of priorities. Sir William Beveridge, Nuffield College, P.E.P. and the *New Statesman* and *Nation* favor the proposal; Lever Bros., however, characterizes it as "exactly the state of affairs the country is fighting against." Other business groups do not support extension of public control.

The *New Statesman* and *Nation* doubts that the country will be able to maintain full employment if private industry retains its powers. The publication favors socialization and cannot see how the Government could maintain full employment without making structural changes in the capitalistic system.

The Federation of British Industries expects a minimum of public control after the post-war transition period, while admitting that the war made it necessary for the Government to assume broad powers temporarily. It cautions against retention of any but the really necessary controls and advocates full consultation and collaboration with private industry.

CONSUMPTION POLICY

As the ultimate purpose of economic activity is to supply the needs and wants of human beings, the investment policy pursued must be dovetailed with a consumption policy to insure that workers are employed in producing goods that are most essential to raising the standard of living. An article in the *London Times* states that there is a risk that the index of employment may be accepted as the sole criterion of the economic and social welfare of the community, without regard to the resultant real income.

P.E.P. argues for making consumption the primary focus of the Government's efforts to deal with the business cycle, and that investment policy is important but less significant. Recommendations include efforts to change consumption habits by propaganda, increases in taxes, reduction of interest rates, measures to give greater security, and redistribution of income through taxation. P.E.P. sees great difficulties in a subsidy program.

The *Economist* (London) gives four reasons for preferring a policy of increased investment to one of subsidized consumption: (1) An investment policy can be increased or lowered according to changing circumstances (a direct grant to the people is not easily withdrawn); (2) a given amount of money spent on increasing investment is likely to have a larger ultimate effect (i. e., the multiplier is larger); (3) only the State can supply subsidies for consumption but others can be induced to expand investment; and (4) increase in investment is a more natural phenomenon.

Other opinions expressed are briefly as follows: G. D. N. Worswick, in an article published in *Agenda*, states that the stimulation of consumption has advantages in raising employment. He says that investment crises are primarily the result of an overaccumulation of capital made possible by a high rate of saving. If the Government subsidizes private investment, the period of accumulation of capital is prolonged and the fall in employment is merely postponed. Subsidies to consumers, however, would ease the problem of investment. The Liberal Party, although not discussing the inequality of income distribution as a cause of the trade cycle, points out that inequality tends to lower the proportion of the national income spent on con-

sumer goods. Discussions of consumption policy in the *London Times* have a different approach, as the authors of the articles favor more complete economic planning than many other groups, whereby both production and consumption would be planned in advance. Another author, Barbara Wooten, advocates planned Government outlay to meet needs, and favors even free distribution of goods to consumers to meet scientifically determined standards of need.

Problems Raised by Full Employment

If full employment is maintained, special problems are created which may be grouped under two headings: (1) The prevention of inflationary tendencies; and (2) the problem of insuring flexibility of the economic structure.

INFLATIONARY TENDENCIES

The *London Times* expressed the opinion that inflationary spirals in wages and prices might become chronic if the working force were fully employed. No discussion of how to deal with the pressure for wage increases has appeared. It would seem that the "wage truce" of wartime is contemplated in peacetime. Certain authors consider that the danger of inflation would result from the sectional nature of wage bargaining. Workers in different industries would compete for advances in pay and, in the opinion of this group, the only means of preventing dislocation would be to substitute wage determination on a national scale for wage bargaining between trade-unions and employers' federations.

The *Economist* (London) states that inflationary tendencies may arise from large periodic State investments which lead to an expansion of bank credit, and raises the question whether a policy whereby pools of money may be created periodically may not lead to monetary instability. By upsetting the relationship between costs and prices, the object of keeping the national economy in balance may be defeated. Joan Robinson (a British economist) stated, in refutation of the *Economist's* distinction between public and private investment in relation to the creation of credit, that investment expenditures of any kind increase the demand for consumption goods, as incomes earned in producing investment goods may be spent for consumption goods. Any excess in investment will involve an excess of demand for consumption goods over the available supply at current prices, and thus drive up prices.

If the Government is given sufficient control over investment activity, public and private, inflationary tendencies need not get out of bounds. The *Lever Bros.* report recommends indirect controls chiefly, calling for a reduction in credit, higher taxation, and a slowing down of Government investments when a boom is on the way. However, the *London Times* argues that if the Government is granted no more control than this, it will not be able to prevent fluctuations but can only "damp" them down. Agreement is expressed by the *Economist* (London) that the "old monetary techniques" suggested by *Lever Bros.* are too indirect, and that the only alternative is "direct physical control of all investment."

FLEXIBILITY OF STRUCTURE

It is stressed repeatedly that full employment must be compatible with economic change and that public measures will be required to promote mobility of labor and flexibility in industry. The London Times has stated that restrictive measures are one of the dangers of so-called industrial self-government. Monopolies, trade associations, and price agreements are in themselves restrictive, limiting production to avoid a surplus that cannot be sold at a remunerative price. To protect individual initiative and to set the processes of expansion in motion, public authority must intervene.

Nuffield College opposes giving sectional trading or manufacturing interests the power to fix prices or output and recommends the establishment of industrial boards, each board to be composed of representatives of industry (including labor and marketing representatives), presided over by a State-paid impartial chairman, and at least two members representing the public. Duties of the boards would include cost and price reduction, concentration of production for efficiency, the exchange of information, etc. In the report quoted it is stated that such boards could add to technical and market progress and make industries more responsive to changing needs and opportunities. New firms must be permitted to enter production, and old ones must be allowed to expand or contract, according to the quality of their services. The boards should not have power to limit output or fix minimum prices, except where necessary and then only with the consent of the Ministry concerned. The aim of the Nuffield plan is to reconcile the freedom of industrialists to manage the various industries with the claims of the State and the consuming public, and at the same time avoid high prices, scarcity, and waste.

Few of the other statements dealing with the organization of industry are as detailed as the Nuffield report. The Liberal Party Subcommittee agrees with the Nuffield statement that restrictive sectional practices are harmful and that State action is necessary to override sectional interest. A correspondent of the London Times points out that no national plan can guarantee every person work in his own trade. If this were possible it would not be desirable. If stability is to be combined with progress, no forms of obstruction to change can be tolerated, whether in the form of obstruction to new techniques or of inflexible trade-union rules. On the latter subject, it is stated further that the abolition of cyclical unemployment will itself make many trade-union protective restrictions unnecessary. Other measures which are designed to protect workers from seasonal unemployment, for example, must be replaced by new provisions.

Recommendations of the Beveridge report provide for retraining workers and granting them allowances during the transition. The London Times suggests that the Government should become a party to employer-employee agreements and carry workers through periods of unemployment at full pay. In return, the worker would have to accept work where he was needed. The same statement refers to the growing immobility of labor between trades, and the increasing clamor of workers for more security and of the community for greater mobility.

Both P.E.P. and Nuffield express the opinion that the extent of co-operation by trade-unions in removing restrictive practices will depend on the confidence of all classes of unemployed in the good faith

with which the system is carried on. Labor's position, according to the London Times, has been one in which the employer could choose between a willing and unwilling worker; if the country had full employment, the worker would have the choice of jobs. Such a change would aid in removing some old abuses and might create new problems of factory discipline. In wartime, disciplinary difficulties are held to a minimum owing to patriotism. The Times, Nuffield College, and P.E.P. agree that industrial and social policies must be such as to produce "a situation in which the workers would be prepared to accept discipline to the necessary and reasonable extent."

International Aspects

Prosperity in Great Britain depends upon a large export trade to furnish the imports needed to maintain even pre-war living standards. Full employment in the future will depend on increasing exports in markets over which Britain cannot exercise any direct influence, and the home country would be greatly handicapped in carrying out a successful full-employment policy if the countries with which she has trade relations do not have a reasonable level of employment.

Little analytical material has been published on the importance of international trade in the implementation of a full-employment policy. Statements have been made to the effect that full employment is not incompatible with an expanding or even with a liberal system of foreign trade. Agreement is general that the chance of success with a full-employment program would be increased if it could be coordinated with those of other nations seeking the same goal. The importance of United States policy particularly is stressed repeatedly in British post-war planning.



China's Labor Policies and Post-War Plans

Outline of Labor Policy

THE Outline of Labor Policy of China, which was compiled by the Research Office of the Ministry of Social Affairs in September 1942,¹ stated certain objectives, as follows: Sound labor organizations, improvement of the social status of labor, raising the standard of living of laborers, regulation of the distribution of labor, furtherance of cooperation between capital and labor, increasing productive efficiency, adapting labor policy to national defense, and cooperation with international labor organizations.

Wartime Amendments

As war is still being waged in China, it has been considered impossible to put into effect all the principles set forth in the Outline of Labor Policy, which has been amended for the war period as follows:

- A. All workers should join unions.
- B. There shall be no strikes in time of war.
- C. 1. Wages should be fixed by the Government. Rationing in kind should be adopted to improve the living conditions of workers.
2. (a) Working hours should be fixed by the authorities, taking into consideration the nature of the industry, local conditions, and wartime requirements, but should not exceed 12 hours a day.

¹ Report of August 24, 1943, from J. Bartlett Richards, commercial attaché at the United States Embassy at Chungking.

- (b) There should be 1 full day of rest every 2 weeks.
- (c) Female workers may do night work, with the approval of the authorities.
- (d) The number of holidays shall be curtailed.
- G. With regard to labor insurance, flexible arrangements should be adopted.
- H. Labor welfare work that tends to increase efficiency should be adopted as soon as possible.
- I. Safety and health of workers should be safeguarded by examinations of factories and mines, in order to assure maximum production.
- K. Workers may establish organizations, with the approval of the authorities, to maintain contact with workers' organizations in the United Nations.

Reconstruction Plans

After reiterating the fact that China's people are thinking and planning how to improve the post-war standard of living of the nation, Dr. T. V. Soong, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, in a broadcast from London on August 8, 1943, pointed out that his country is mainly agricultural and that consequently the least difficult and most rapid way to secure a higher standard of living is through the improvement of agriculture. He declared that the Government no longer will "stand by idly, leaving things to the farmers themselves. We shall have farm credits, cooperatives, improved irrigation and fertilizers, agricultural stations, modern transport, improved administration, and universal education to introduce scientific technique. We believe that with all these measures, the Chinese farmer in 10 years will find his income doubled."²

The most difficult task, he conceded, will be the building up of both the heavy and light industries.

We are determined to build up our industries because without them we cannot raise the standard of living of our people very much nor play a great part in the new economic cooperation of the world. We are resolved that there shall be no gap between our demobilization after the war and our mobilization for building up our industries. We shall meet problems as to how to acquire the necessary scientific technique and capital to start the thousand and one factories we are planning to build. We could at once make use of the most modern techniques. To acquire such techniques is not really so difficult. Today they can be readily obtained like any other goods, if one is willing to pay the price. Our own engineers will be abroad in large numbers to learn these techniques and on their return they will have highly skilled foreign engineers, and even executives, to help them start their new factories and plants.

With reference to the requisite capital for industrialization, he expressed the belief that China could obtain post-war credit on terms acceptable to the Government.

This official further stated that he takes it for granted that the industrial development of his country is mutually beneficial to China and to the advanced industrial nations. The industrialization of China, he stated, will mean a market in which ships, locomotives, machines, and allied manufactures, and such consumer goods as that country will not be able to produce, and when the standard of living of the people of China is higher, it will be advantageous to the whole world.

Plan for Industrialization

The Senior Secretary of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, Dr. Chiang-chao Wu, presented an industrialization scheme, the basis of

²International Labor Review (Montreal), October 1943.

which is regional decentralization with a view to national defense requirements. In this connection, it is proposed that, with the exception of Outer Mongolia and Tibet, which are to be dealt with later, seven industrial regions should be developed. The accompanying table shows the area, population, and principal products of these regions:¹

Area, Population, and Chief Natural Resources of 7 Regions in China

Region	Area (in thous- and square kilo- meters) ¹	Popu- lation (in thous- ands)	Major natural resources
Northeast region (Provinces of Liaoning, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and Jehol).	1,247	28,542	Wheat, kaoliang, soybeans, leather, timber, coal, iron, manganese, aluminum, gold, petroleum, salt.
North China (Provinces of Charhar, Suiyuan, Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, and Honan).	1,232	114,540	Wheat, kaoliang, millet, corn, soybeans, sweetpotatoes, peanuts, cotton, hemp, sesame, tobacco, leather, coal, iron, aluminum, gold, salt.
Northwest region (Provinces of Ninghsia, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, and Sinkiang).	3,379	22,663	Wheat, oats, kaoliang, millet, corn, sheep wool, leather, cream, coal, petroleum, salt.
East China (Provinces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, and Anhwei).	354	80,949	Rice, wheat, soybeans, peanuts, rape, cotton, silk, tea, tobacco, tung oil, coal, iron, salt.
Central China (Provinces of Hupeh, Hunan, and Kiangsi).	565	65,639	Rice, wheat, barley, oats, kaoliang, rape, sugarcane, cotton, ramie, tea, tung oil, tobacco, coal, iron, manganese, tungsten, antimony, molybdenum, tin, lead, mercury, gold.
South China (Provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Fukien).	559	58,583	Rice, sweetpotatoes, sugarcane, silk, tea, leather, coal, iron, manganese, tungsten, antimony, molybdenum, salt.
Southwest region (Provinces of Szechwan, Sikang, Kweichow, and Yunnan).	1,386	69,499	Rice, wheat, barley, oats, kaoliang, corn, rape, sugar, silk, tobacco, tung oil, sheep wool, leather, bristles, timber, coal, iron, nickel, copper, lead, zinc, aluminum, tin, mercury, gold, petroleum, salt, phosphorus.

¹ Square kilometer = 0.3861 square mile.

Attention was called to the special importance of developing the heavy industries, not only because they are essential to the country's defense, but because they are indispensable to the proper development of other industries.

According to a Chungking radio broadcast on October 22, 1943,¹ over 2,000 Chinese engineers—"the largest group of technical men ever assembled in China"—were in attendance at a 6-day conference at Kweilin on post-war economic and industrial reconstruction plans.

The English-language broadcast to North America stated that Dr. Paul F. Eaton of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, had extended greetings to the delegates, on behalf of the United States Government, and had reported on American production methods.

The Chinese Minister of Economic Affairs was the presiding officer at the conference and read a message from the President of China urging the engineers to "make big strides" before the war comes to a close, declaring that "China's industrial reconstruction should fit into the world trend." The Minister reported that the institute of Chinese engineers had at present 35 branches in 14 Provinces and a registered membership of 27,000.

After the conference, the delegates were to tour the country to obtain first-hand information on national reconstruction problems.

¹ International Labor Review (Montreal), October 1943, p. 487.

United States. Office of War Information. Foreign Service Division, OWI-35.

New Economic Blueprints for India

A GROWING interest in reconstruction programs is being manifested in India, and various measures for industrial development and the regulation of the coal industry have already been taken or are being considered. In the British Indian Province of Bengal, a resolution has been adopted on the urgency of devising schemes for the rehabilitation of demobilized men and of the people evacuated from danger zones. In the State of Hyderabad the Government has reached a decision to establish a post-war planning board, and in the State of Mysore a 5-year rural-reconstruction plan has been agreed upon. A brief account of these schemes is given in the International Labor Review of October 1943, from which the following information is taken.

Measures for Industrial Development

In June 1943, an Anglo-American mission for the study of problems concerning steel production in the British Commonwealth and the United States visited India. This mission's purpose was stated to be to make it possible for each of the United Nations to further its individual efforts to expand its own production as a part of the whole plan. The mission stressed the need for close coordination of the steel industry in India, and suggested plans for greater development. At about the same time, it was reported in the Indian press that two senior British technical experts had arrived in India to help effectuate a plan which the Government had worked out for the development of the machine-tool industry. The Punjab Government Department of Industries allocated 20,000 rupees to provide subsidies to help trained young men start small industries.

Regulations for the Coal Industry¹

The Indian Government has been actively considering a number of different proposals for regulating the coal industry. It was reported that the views of the various interested parties would be ascertained before the competent authorities reached a decision on the matter. These proposed measures included the formation of a board or boards for the fixing of wages and working conditions, the creation of machinery for price fixing and the regulation of production, "the appointment of a labor welfare board, labor welfare officers, and a conciliation officer, the compilation of adequate statistical data relating to earnings, the investigation of the possibility and the desirability of the State acquiring mineral rights in cases in which this has not been done, and the extension of hospital and educational facilities in mining areas."

Rehabilitation of Demobilized Men and Evacuees

In May 1943, a resolution was passed by the Bengal Legislative Assembly concerning the urgent need for formulating plans for the rehabilitation of demobilized men at the close of the war and for

¹The main coal mines in India are in Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, the Central Provinces, and State of Hyderabad. The total coal production in the country in 1938 was 28,342,906 tons; the total number of persons employed in the industry in 1937 was 193,767. Employment in mining industries is regulated by the Indian Mines Act.

taking up with the Central Government the matter of a substantial appropriation for this purpose. It was reported that a great number of men, including seamen estimated at more than 40,000, had been recruited for various wartime tasks, and that the evacuees from danger zones approximated 3,500,000.

*Post-War Planning Board for Hyderabad*²

In accordance with a decision of the Government of the State of Hyderabad, a Board of Post-War Planning is to be created, the chairman of which is to be the president of the Nizam's executive council. The Board is to consist of the chairmen of its various committees, and other persons, official and nonofficial. Its major function will be the preparation of post-war development plans. It will also deal with such matters as irrigation and power schemes, engineering, small-scale, rural, cottage and other industries, public works and communications other than railways, scientific and industrial research, education with special reference to technical and agricultural education, development of rural areas, manpower, public health, finance, currency, banking, exchange, and trade.

In connection with these projects, a secretariat will be established in the charge of one of the members of the Executive Council who will serve as the vice chairman of the Board. The requisite initial organization expenditure is estimated to be 200,000 rupees per annum.

*Rural Reconstruction in Mysore*³

The Mysore Government has inaugurated a 5-year rural-reconstruction program planned to better the countryside conditions. In conformity with this plan, social workers have been designated and are taking training courses in rural welfare centers, with the aid of the Government.

² Hyderabad, which is ruled by the Nizam (the native sovereign), is 82,696 square miles in area and in 1941 had a population of 16,194,313. Its chief food crops are rice and millets; money crops, cotton and oil seed; and industries, in addition to handicrafts, cotton ginning and pressing, husking, rice, flour, and oil milling, sugar, paper, alcohol, and coal mining.

³ Area, 39,483 square miles; population, 7,328,996 (1941). The principal crops are rice, millets, and sugarcane, and the principal fibers produced in the State, cotton and sun-hemp. The more important industries include iron and steel, chemicals and fertilizers, electrical goods, glass, vegetable oils, gold mining, salt, tobacco, coffee, porcelain, soap, sandalwood oil, and other vegetable oils.

Social Security

Increased Benefits Under British Workmen's Compensation Acts

A LAW providing for a temporary increase in supplementary allowances and in the compensation for fatal cases, payable to workers under the British Workmen's Compensation Act of 1925, received royal assent November 11, 1943.¹ The amending law is to continue in force until December 31, 1946.

In cases of total disability caused by an industrial accident, the rate of the supplementary weekly allowance, which was fixed at 5s. by an amendment in 1940,² was increased to 10s. for each week of total incapacity after the first 13 weeks. Provision was also made for the payment of a supplementary allowance to a totally incapacitated married man, in respect of his wife (if he was married to her at the time of the accident), at the rate of 5s. a week during the first 13 weeks of incapacity and 10s. for each subsequent week. The total weekly payments to totally disabled persons are thus increased in the case of a married man, from 35s. to 40s. during the first 13 weeks and to 50s. thereafter; and in other cases, from 35s. to 40s., after the first 13 weeks. The total amount of the weekly payment, however, may not exceed two-thirds of the average weekly earnings of the worker before the accident; exception is made where (as in the case of low-paid workers) calculation on this basis would reduce the amount payable before the law was passed.

Children's allowances, which were fixed by the 1940 act at 4s. a week for each of the first two children under the age of 15 years and 3s. a week for each additional child, are increased to 5s. for children under 15 years. A child who is receiving full-time school instruction when he reaches 15 will continue to receive the allowance until such instruction ceases or until the end of the next July after he reaches the age of 16 years, whichever is earlier.

In cases of partial incapacity, the total weekly payments, exclusive of children's allowances, are limited to two-thirds of the reduction in wages resulting from the accident, except where the amount so payable would be less than that prior to the 1943 act.

The maximum amount of compensation (including the children's allowances) payable for total disability is fixed at seven-eighths of the average pre-accident weekly earnings of the worker; and for partial disability, at seven-eighths of the wage loss caused by the accident.

The minimum compensation in fatal cases in which total dependents survive is increased from £200 to £300, and the maximum from £300

¹ Great Britain. Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), November 1943; Workmen's Compensation (Temporary Increases) Bill, 6 and 7 Geo. 6.

² See Monthly Labor Review, October 1940, p. 838.

to £400. In cases where there are children in addition to an adult dependent, the aggregate maximum payable is increased from £600 to £700.

Provision for Family Allowances in Uruguay, 1943

A URUGUAYAN law dated November 12, 1943,¹ establishes a system of family allowances payable for dependent children of workers whose wages or salary do not exceed 200 pesos per month.

The system is to be carried on through "salary funds" administered by tripartite boards, representing workers, employers, and the Government. The Chief Executive of Uruguay is directed to establish these boards within 8 months after the promulgation of the law.

The plan is to be supported by compulsory contributions from the employers. Beginning November 23, 1943, and until the boards are established, the employers' contribution will be at the rate of 3 percent of their pay rolls. Thereafter the rate will range from 1½ to 3½ percent of pay rolls, being determined every 3 months on the basis of the amount necessary to cover (a) the sums necessary to pay the children's allowances, (b) expenses of administration (not exceeding 3 percent of the gross receipts), and (c) a reserve fund amounting to 5 percent of the allowances.

Benefits are payable only for dependent children of families in which the salary of the head of the family (or of both husband and wife, if the latter is also employed) does not exceed 200 pesos per month. The allowances are to be paid to the person responsible for support, for each dependent, legitimate or legally recognized child up to 14 years of age (16 in cases where the child is still in school). The rate of benefit per child is tentatively set at 6 pesos.²

Employing establishments which organize their own funds, individually or collectively, providing benefits equal or superior to those fixed by this law, are exempted from the necessity of affiliating with any of the official savings funds. All employers must, however, report at least once a year to the National Labor Institute and Associated Services, giving complete data on pay rolls and certain additional information relative to their employees.

¹ Law of November 12, 1943, published in *Diario Oficial*, November 20, 1943; decree No. 1119/941 of November 19, 1943, published in *Diario Oficial*, November 25, 1943. The minimum-wage provisions of the same law are summarized on page 406 of this issue.

² The law does not state at what intervals this allowance is to be paid, i. e., whether per week, per month, etc.

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Women in Industry

Women's Earnings and Hours in Beauty-Service Occupations, New York State, 1943

IN New York State in 1943, women in the beauty-service industry were being paid \$21.26 per week, or \$7.79 more than in 1936.¹ From 1942 to 1943 the increase was \$3.39 per week. Not only has the minimum-wage order for the industry been effective in raising all wages as the minimum rates were increased, but the greater number of hours worked and the general upward trend of wages caused by the war have also been influential.

For the first time since the minimum-wage order became operative, the average woman in beauty service has nearly earned the amount declared essential "for adequate maintenance and protection of health for women workers in New York State" living as family members—\$1,160.17 per annum, in 1942, or \$22.31 per week. (This estimate did not include income taxes and the buying of war bonds.)

In the table below, the median week's earnings of women in the industry under discussion are given and also the percentages of women in various earnings groups:

TABLE 1.—*Weekly Earnings of Women in Beauty-Service Occupations, New York State*

Earnings group	Percent with classified earnings					
	1936	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Under \$5.....	10.6	2.4	2.4	1.9	1.9	1.5
\$5 and under \$10.....	20.4	6.3	6.1	6.4	5.5	4.1
\$10 and under \$12.....	11.9	.9	.6	.8	.8	1.6
\$12 and under \$15.....	22.2	5.2	5.0	4.3	4.5	3.9
\$15 and under \$20.....	19.7	66.3	67.1	66.2	59.8	27.5
\$20 and under \$25.....	8.1	13.7	13.8	15.2	20.9	42.8
\$25 and over.....	7.1	5.2	5.0	5.2	6.6	18.6
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of women reporting.....	5,157	12,594	11,529	11,982	12,018	10,949
Median week's earnings.....	\$13.47	\$16.74	\$16.79	\$16.84	\$17.87	\$21.26

Although the wages of these women increased 27 percent to 1943 from the date when the mandatory wage order became operative in March 1939, the cost of living rose 25 percent, so that their 1943 earnings cannot be regarded in the same category with some of the wartime boom wages.

The same upward climb was shown in hourly wages, half of the women earning 50 cents or more per hour in 1943 as compared to less than 10 percent in 1936, three quarters of them receiving less than 35

¹ New York. Department of Labor. *The Industrial Bulletin*, Albany, November 1943.

cents per hour in 1936, and only 0.5 percent receiving less than that rate in 1943.

Although in 1943 the median hours continued to be 45 per week—the average since 1939—an increase in the percentage of women working over 45 hours per week accounted for more overtime pay. The legal maximum weekly hours in beauty shops are 48. The following table presents some details of working hours of women in beauty service.

TABLE 2.—*Weekly Hours Worked in Specified Years by Women in Beauty-Service Occupations, New York State*

Weekly hours	Percent working specified hours in—					
	1936	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Under 24 hours.....	6.1	9.5	9.2	9.0	8.2	8.1
24 and under 30 hours.....	2.2	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.8	4.4
30 and under 36 hours.....	3.5	1.7	1.3	1.5	2.0	2.3
36 and under 42 hours.....	5.0	7.5	7.7	8.4	11.0	12.0
42 and under 48 hours.....	16.1	62.1	64.3	63.8	80.2	80.5
48 hours.....	16.5	15.3	13.6	13.7	13.5	10.0
Over 48 hours.....	50.6	.5	.3	.4	.3	.5
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of women reporting.....	4,665	12,567	11,520	11,976	12,010	10,000
Median weekly hours.....	48.4	45.0	45.0	45.0	45.0	46.0

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Industrial Disputes

Strikes in 1943 (Preliminary Estimates)

FOR the year 1943, preliminary estimates show about 3,750 strikes which caused 13,500,000 man-days of idleness and involved 1,900,000 workers. The latter figure includes the coal miners only once, although most of them were out four times during the year and many of them more than four times. Idleness during the year amounted to 0.14 percent of available working time, as compared with 0.05 percent in 1942 and 0.32 percent in 1941. Approximately two-thirds of the strike idleness during 1943 was due to the coal-mining strikes.

Strikes in December 1943

ESTIMATES for December 1943 indicate 325 strikes, involving 241,000 workers, and 715,000 man-days idle during the month. While the number of strikes was a little greater than in November, there was a substantial decline in the number of workers involved, and the amount of idleness was only one-fourth as great as in November. The general stoppage of coal miners in November accounted for the high figures for that month. Idleness in December was 0.09 percent of the available working time as compared with 0.36 percent in November.

In December the brief stoppage of over 150,000 steel workers, most of them out for only one day, was the largest strike of the month.

Strikes in December 1943, With Comparative Figures for Earlier Periods¹

Month and year	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle during month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
December 1943 ²	325	241,000	715,000	0.09
November 1943 ²	300	500,000	2,825,000	.36
December 1942	147	59,269	192,502	.03
December 1941	143	29,555	476,471	.07

¹ All figures exclude strikes lasting less than 1 working day (or shift) and those involving fewer than 6 workers.

² Preliminary estimates.

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, December 1943

THE United States Conciliation Service, during December disposed of 2,097 situations involving 772,842 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 194 were strikes and lockouts involving 69,288 workers; 1,182 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 308,905 workers. During the month 347 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board, and in 67 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 307 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, December 1943,
by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number	Workers Involved
All situations.....	¹ 2,097	772,842
Labor disputes.....	1,376	373,130
Strikes.....	191	69,288
Threatened strikes.....	169	58,299
Lockouts.....	3	19
Controversies.....	1,013	245,524
Other situations.....	307	44,358
Arbitrations.....	99	35,690
Technical services.....	21	11,772
Investigations.....	37	2,095
Requests for verification of union membership.....	1	0
Requests for information.....	22	0
Consultations.....	72	29
Special services of Commissioners.....	44	4,428
Complaints.....	11	11
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	414	330,440
To National War Labor Board.....	347	334,190
To National Labor Relations Board.....	47	13,440
To other Federal agencies.....	11	2,230
To Wage Adjustment Board.....	1	0
To non-governmental agencies.....	2	0
To State agencies.....	6	1,380

¹ During the month 162 cases involving 36,795 workers were adjusted, subject to hearings officer on arbitration procedure with the hearings officer or arbitrator to be selected by the National War Labor Board.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades and transportation, and the manufacture of iron and steel, transportation equipment, textiles, food, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Alaska (table 3).

Industrial Disputes

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TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, December 1943, by Industries

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries.....	1,790	728,639	307	44,203	2,097	772,842
Agriculture.....	2	270	1	5	3	275
Building trades.....	60	10,561	7	30	67	10,591
Chemicals.....	52	24,138	7	576	59	24,714
Communications.....	11	19,591			11	19,591
Electrical equipment.....	46	23,931	5	8,023	51	31,954
Food.....	194	106,548	11	160	205	106,708
Furniture and finished lumber.....	52	11,277	13	169	65	11,446
Iron and steel.....	237	98,201	34	1,728	271	99,926
Lumber.....	40	23,393	21	8,367	61	31,760
Machinery.....	54	9,573	1	1	55	9,574
Maritime.....	79	27,536	19	1,969	98	29,505
Mining.....	20	25,336			20	25,336
Motion pictures.....	32	10,178	3	25	35	10,203
	3	102	1	4	4	106
Numerous metals.....	63	61,093	12	481	75	61,574
Paper.....	24	5,531	2	377	26	5,908
Personal service.....	76	7,515	15	657	91	8,172
Petroleum.....	25	2,151	13	553	38	2,704
Printing.....	37	2,222	4	450	41	2,672
Professional.....	5	625	1	100	6	725
Rubber.....	18	5,277	5	805	23	5,882
Stone, clay and glass.....	49	6,737	5	13	54	6,750
Textile.....	74	19,889	27	3,515	101	23,404
Tobacco.....	4	4,905			4	4,905
Trade.....	183	23,849	17	5,566	200	29,415
Transportation.....	133	12,136	21	3,473	154	15,609
Transportation equipment.....	137	169,309	34	2,825	171	172,134
Utilities.....	17	5,778	3	116	20	5,894
Miscellaneous.....	63	10,987	25	4,418	88	15,405

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, December 1943, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States.....	1,790	728,639	307	44,203	2,097	772,842
Alabama.....	13	2,303	5	15	18	2,318
Alaska.....	1	16	—	—	1	16
Arizona.....	7	4,767	—	—	7	4,767
Arkansas.....	9	816	2	8	11	824
California.....	159	69,650	20	844	179	70,494
Colorado.....	56	2,027	1	3	57	2,030
Connecticut.....	5	1,827	6	703	11	2,530
Delaware.....	5	4,364	1	150	6	4,514
District of Columbia.....	6	1,185	7	510	13	1,695
Florida.....	9	2,469	6	39	15	2,508
Georgia.....	11	786	3	201	14	987
Hawaii.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Idaho.....	11	1,176	—	—	11	1,176
Illinois.....	198	132,947	19	6,507	217	139,454
Indiana.....	59	28,397	16	285	75	28,682
Iowa.....	47	4,043	1	20	48	4,063
Kansas.....	23	1,561	1	19	24	1,580
Kentucky.....	18	6,805	2	18	20	6,823
Louisiana.....	23	11,422	5	15	28	11,437
Maine.....	5	173	—	—	5	173
Maryland.....	16	8,929	2	290	18	9,219
Massachusetts.....	46	49,356	31	10,255	77	59,611
Michigan.....	113	61,525	31	1,564	144	63,089
Minnesota.....	26	14,640	1	3	27	14,643
Mississippi.....	7	1,602	—	—	7	1,602
Missouri.....	102	15,275	10	1,878	112	17,153
Montana.....	4	228	—	—	4	228
Nebraska.....	13	6,039	—	—	13	6,039
Nevada.....	1	67	—	—	1	67
New Hampshire.....	5	297	—	—	5	297
New Jersey.....	55	15,418	11	10,124	66	25,542
New Mexico.....	1	2,430	1	350	2	2,780
New York.....	126	57,283	12	2,127	138	59,410
North Carolina.....	15	1,775	5	77	20	1,852
Puerto Rico.....	28	6,863	2	9	30	6,872
North Dakota.....	3	60	2	200	5	260
Ohio.....	138	57,713	29	2,405	167	60,118
Oklahoma.....	19	5,492	3	19	22	5,511
Oregon.....	38	1,837	1	1	39	1,838
Pennsylvania.....	106	80,565	21	3,561	127	84,126
Rhode Island.....	9	2,582	9	513	18	3,095
South Carolina.....	7	5,629	9	358	16	6,087
South Dakota.....	2	59	—	—	2	59
Tennessee.....	40	10,073	9	36	49	10,109
Texas.....	19	3,617	8	318	27	3,935
Utah.....	15	1,952	1	1	16	1,953
Vermont.....	3	726	—	—	3	726
Virginia.....	18	7,130	9	522	27	7,652
Washington.....	54	5,412	2	192	56	5,604
West Virginia.....	21	7,150	1	5	22	7,155
Wisconsin.....	70	20,069	2	151	72	20,220
Wyoming.....	3	142	—	—	3	142

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Industrial Relations

Settlement of Labor Disputes in China

AMENDMENTS to the Chinese Labor Disputes Act were promulgated on March 31, 1943, and became effective the same day. These amendments are applicable to all controversies affecting organizations of 15 workers or more, with the exception of State enterprises in which employment conditions are subject to Government regulation.¹

Conciliation procedure.—Under the law as amended, the competent authority for handling industrial disputes is the Ministry of Social Affairs (for the Central Government) or the municipal, district, or Provincial authority (for a municipal, district, or Provincial jurisdiction).² Such authorities may, at their discretion or upon the request of the conflicting parties, refer a dispute to a tripartite conciliation committee composed of five or seven members. Such committees must complete their investigations within 7 days and communicate their findings to the competent authority not later than 2 days after conclusion of the investigations.

Arbitration procedure.—A controversy may be referred to arbitration (a) before recourse has been had to conciliation, if both parties to the dispute make application therefor to the proper authority, (b) at the request of one of the parties when conciliation has failed, or (c) at the discretion of the proper authority in important cases in which no settlement has been effected within a 10-day period. The competent authorities are to establish arbitration boards of five members each—two designated by the competent authority (one of these is to serve as chairman), one appointed by the local court of law, and the remaining two to be nominated from a panel established every 2 years by the municipal and Provincial governments. Such panels are to include 24 to 48 nominees of employers' organizations and an equal number of persons designated by workers' organizations.

The law forbids a member of a conciliation committee to serve on the arbitration board for the settlement of the same dispute.

Awards of the arbitration boards, which will have the force of contracts or collective agreements, will be made by a majority decision at meetings attended by all the members. * * * The parties to a dispute may reach a settlement pending the arbitration proceedings, but in that case the terms must be communicated to the arbitration board.

Other provisions.—Pending either conciliation or arbitration proceedings, employers are forbidden to discharge workers involved in a controversy, and work stoppages in public-utility enterprises, including transportation and communication, are likewise forbidden. In

¹ International Labor Review, Montreal, December 1943.

² In disputes in which two or more municipal or district administrations in the same Province were concerned, the Provincial Government is the competent authority, and for those involving areas extending beyond the Province, the Ministry of Social Affairs is to use its good offices.

periods of national emergency, neither employers nor workers may suspend work because of a dispute.

In case of failure of either contending party to comply with the arbitration award, the other party may not only have recourse to a court of law, but the recalcitrant is liable to penalties of fine and imprisonment.



Collective Agreements in Mexico¹

IN Mexico, collective agreements may be made compulsory in an industry throughout a region or the entire Republic for periods not to exceed 2 years, by Presidential decree. At the end of 1943, compulsory or extensive collective agreements were in force in the following manufacturing industries: Cotton, wool, silk and rayon, knitwear, counterpane, hard fibers, mattress and filling, starch and the like, rubber, sugar, and fine china (not pottery) and porcelain. An agreement in the textile industry was made effective for all textile work throughout the country by a decree of August 23, 1929. This agreement was limited in 1932 to the cotton-textile industry only, and to 22 political divisions of the Republic and the Federal District. It was extended by periods of 6 months each into 1938, when provision was made for adoption of the contract then being prepared (adopted in 1939), which is the basis of the present wages and working conditions.

Owing to war conditions, the collective agreements are undergoing a considerable amount of revision. From March to May 1943, wage increases ranging up to 15 percent were made in the cotton, woolen, silk and rayon, and knitwear industries; in May and June 1943, these increases were made compulsory for the entire industry in the region covered. Additional increases of 2 percent were at that time granted in the rayon and knitwear industries, to cover the workers' share of cost of the social-insurance scheme adopted in Mexico, December 31, 1942.

Under the leadership of the Secretariat of Labor, a system of rapid revision of agreements is being carried out. The officials of the secretariat hold a hearing for the two parties, determine the fundamental points, at issue, and hold discussions of these points. The terms reached are incorporated in the collective agreement. Formerly, worker-employer negotiations often became involved in discussions of detail which extended over weeks and even months.

Compulsory Collective Agreements

The accompanying table shows, for the industries in which collective agreements are in effect, the date of the agreement and the date on which it was made compulsory, the term, and the territory covered.²

¹ Data are from *Informaciones Sociales* (Mexico, Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Departamento de Informaciones Sociales y Estadística, Sección de Publicidad) April 25, 1942; *Boletín de Minas y Petróleo* (Mexico, Secretaría de la Economía Nacional, Dirección General de Minas y Petróleo), December 1942; *Diario Oficial*, various dates 1935-1944; *Legislative Series 1929—Mexico 4* (International Labor Office, General: El Popular (Mexico City), June 14, 1943, and January 12, 1944; and U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 559 and Serials Nos. R. 897 and R. 1120.

² For details of the agreement in the cotton-textile industry, adopted in 1939 (which is essentially the same as the agreement now in effect, except for wage increases), see *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1940 (p. 1196); also included in Bureau of Labor Statistics Serial No. R. 1120. Some comparative provisions of agreements in force in 1938, for the silk and rayon, woolen textile, rubber, sugar, and cotton-textile industries, were given in Serial No. R. 897.

Collective Agreements in Effect in Mexico, 1943, by Industries

Industry	Date of the agreement	Made compulsory by decree	Revision or extension of original agreement	Duration	Number of political divisions covered
Counterpane.....	Mar. 8, 1937	Dec. 16, 1941	Extension.....	2 years.....	All
Rubber ¹	June 22, 1942		Revision.....do.....	All
Fine china (not pottery) and porcelain.....	Mar. 13, 1942	June 9, 1942do.....do.....	All
Starch and glucose ¹	Aug. 21, 1939	Jan. 15, 1943do.....do.....	All
Wool.....	Mar. 21, 1941	May 7, 1943do.....do.....	All
Cotton.....	June 14, 1941	May 21, 1943do.....do.....	23
Silk and rayon.....	Feb. 21, 1935	June 4, 1943do.....	1 year.....	23
Knitwear.....	Apr. 5, 1940	June 26, 1943do.....	2 years.....	All
Hard fibers.....	June 3, 1938	Sept. 17, 1943do.....do.....	All
Mattress and filling ¹	Feb. 1, 1943	do.....do.....	6
Sugar, alcohol, etc.....	Dec. 16, 1943	Dec. 21, 1943do.....do.....	All

¹ Applies to organizations and establishments in regions involved, which are signatory to the agreement.

The collective agreement in the counterpane industry was made compulsory for 2 years in 1941. For the sugar and associated industries, a collective agreement was made compulsory for the entire Republic in 1936; it was extended in 1937, and again in 1938, 1939, and 1941; certain amendments were adopted during this time and the revision of 1941 included a 15-percent wage increase. There was a wage increase also in 1942 and an extension in 1943 of the revised agreement. The 1936 agreement in the rubber industry was made compulsory for the entire Republic by decree issued in 1938, and again (with certain amendments) in 1940. The agreement in the rubber industry was thoroughly revised in 1942, so that the present agreement is actually new; as no record has been found that the agreement in the rubber industry has been made compulsory for the entire Republic by a Presidential decree (though requested) it may be concluded that it applies as yet to only the signatory establishments and organizations. In the fine china (not pottery) and porcelain industry, the collective agreement was likewise entirely rewritten in 1942, but an earlier one (1939) was declared compulsory for the entire Republic in 1940 and, with amendments, extended in 1942. For the starch and glucose industry, the agreement adopted in 1939 has been renewed twice, with certain amendments.

Somewhat similar procedure has been applied to the woolen, cotton, silk and rayon, and knitwear industries. In these cases, wage increases ranging up to 15 percent were decreed in the spring of 1943. These increases are embodied in the decrees making compulsory for 2 years (1 year for silk and rayon), in specified regions, agreements already in effect. The agreement for the hard-fiber textile industry was revised by an agreement of July 5, 1943, with a 15-percent pay increase, and was declared compulsory throughout the Republic, for 2 years by decree of September 17, 1943.

A decree of January 11, 1944, affects rates in the textile industry. From the date of its publication in the *Diario Oficial* (January 12, 1944), the increases indicated by the emergency legislation of September 1943³ are not to apply to the textile industry, but instead, the

³ See Monthly Labor Review, December 1943 (pp. 1221-1223); reprinted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in Serial No. R. 1607.

following increases will apply: Workers receiving 10 pesos or less per day are to receive an increase of 12 percent, and persons on piece work, regardless of the amount they receive, are to have a 12-percent increase in both cases to be based on wages in effect September 22, 1943. Only in cases where this decree would bring about a reduction in wages at present received in the textile industry are the rates specified in the decree of September 1943 to apply.

A collective agreement in the mattress and filling industry for 5 States and the Federal District was signed on February 1, 1943. The request that it be declared compulsory for these 6 political divisions of the country called also for a 15-percent wage increase over previous agreement.

Legal Provisions Affecting Collective Agreements

CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS

The constitution of Mexico, adopted in 1917, contained several provisions (articles 28, 73, and 123) affecting labor. The regulations (1926) of article 28 were amended by presidential decree of June 15, 1929, to authorize the Government to make collective agreements compulsory, for a particular branch of industry in a particular district. Articles 73 and 123 of the Constitution were amended by a decree of November 5, 1942, authorizing the Mexican Congress "to legislate throughout the Republic concerning hydrocarbons, mining, the moving-picture industry, commerce, institutions of credit, and electric energy * * * and to issue the labor laws regulatory of article 123 of the constitution itself." Article 123 of the constitution was amended to read (in translation) as follows:

"The application of the labor laws is incumbent upon the authorities of the States in their respective jurisdictions, but jurisdiction is reserved exclusively to the Federal authorities in the following: Textile, electrical, moving-picture, rubber, and sugar industries; mining, hydrocarbons, railways, and enterprises administered directly or indirectly by the Federal Government; enterprises operating under Federal contract or concession; enterprises which carry on work in Federal zones and territorial waters; conflicts which affect two or more governmental units; collective agreements which have been declared compulsory in more than one governmental unit; and finally, the obligations which devolve upon the employers in the matter of education, in the form and manner which the respective laws fix."

PROVISIONS OF THE FEDERAL LABOR LAW

A collective agreement is defined in the Federal Labor Law of 1931 as "any agreement entered into by one or several labor unions, and one or several employers, or one or several employers' associations, for the purpose of establishing the conditions under which the work is to be performed."

An employer who engages workers belonging to a union must enter into agreement with them if they request it. If there are several unions in the same enterprise, the collective contract must be made with the one having the largest number of workers in the business, with the understanding that the agreement may not specify conditions less favorable to the workers than those contained in other contracts in force in the enterprise. The agreement must be executed in writing and in triplicate and becomes effective only on the date and hour the copy is deposited with the board of conciliation and arbitration having

jurisdiction, or, in the absence of such, the municipal authority, by either of the parties.

Provisions of agreements.—The Federal Labor Law specifies certain minimum requirements which must be provided in all agreements unless otherwise noted. These include a maximum 8-hour day (7 hours at night and 7½ hours for a mixed shift); double time for overtime, which is not to exceed 3 hours per day on 3 days in a week; prohibition of overtime work for minors under 16 years and for women; a compulsory day of rest each week with pay; for workers with more than a year's service, not less than 4 days' paid vacation each year nor, after 2 years, less than 6 days; no deductions from wages except (with the worker's consent) for debts contracted with the employer (not to exceed 30 percent of that part of the wage exceeding the minimum), for union dues, or for the establishment of cooperative associations and savings banks; full pay for 3 compulsory rest days and the vacation period each year, and for 8 days of maternity leave before and a month after confinement, with two 30-minute nursing periods per day after return to work (any additional maternity leave is without pay); prohibition of work requiring considerable physical exertion during 3 months before childbirth; and special quarters for working mothers to nurse their babies, in enterprises employing more than 50 women.

Within the limits of the above compulsory requirements, the agreement may fix the amount of wages, working hours, the nature of the work, rest days, and vacations, and any other provisions which the parties consider necessary. An agreement must specify the enterprise or enterprises, establishments or branches included, and the region to which it is applicable. The provisions of the collective agreement extend to all persons working in the enterprise, whether or not members of the union, except persons holding positions of management and inspection and confidential employees doing personal work for the employer within the enterprise. A clause requiring the hiring of only union men is lawful, but this clause and any others which establish privileges for organized workers may not be applied to the prejudice of unorganized workers who are parties to the agreement and who were working in the enterprise when it was made.

Revision and termination of agreements.—Every collective agreement, whether for a definite or indefinite time or for a definite piece of work, may be revised entirely or partially every 2 years at the request of either of the parties thereto, under the following conditions: If the trade-union requests the revision, those desiring revision must represent at least 51 percent of the union membership; if the employers request the revision, those requesting it must employ at least 51 percent of the number of workers affected by the agreement. The request for the revision must be made at least 60 days before the contract expires. If during such period the parties do not reach an agreement or do not extend the period of negotiation, the matter shall be submitted to the proper board of conciliation and arbitration for decision. During the proceedings before the board the contract remains in force.

The collective agreement may be terminated for any of the following reasons: Mutual consent of the parties, judicial liquidation of the business; termination of the job; and the general closing down of an enterprise or shutdown because of the exhaustion of raw material, the physical or mental incapacity of the employer, or unforeseen event

or force majeure. When an unforeseen event or force majeure occurs and the business is insured, as soon as the insurance is paid the workers must be compensated with 3 months' wages. In case of termination for any of the other specified causes, persons working therein must be compensated with 1 month's wages.

Procedure for declaring agreements compulsory.—When a collective contract has been entered into by two-thirds of the employers and union workers in a specified branch of industry and in a specified district, it is binding on all employers and workers in the same branch of industry in the said district, if so provided by a decree to that effect issued by the Federal Executive. If the contract affects only the work performed in one Federal Government unit, the Federal Executive and the local authority shall decide the matter. Detailed provisions are given as to method of making a collective labor contract compulsory. "The contract declared binding shall apply, notwithstanding any provision to the contrary contained in any other collective agreement, except on those points on which the provisions of the latter are more favorable to the worker." The Federal Executive shall fix the period during which the contract is to be in force, which shall not exceed 2 years. The periods specified shall be extended for equal periods of time, unless within 3 months of expiration the majority of the workers or employers involved express a desire to terminate the contract. The compulsory contract may be revised upon the petition of the employers and workers who represent a majority of the original contracting group; failure by such majority to make a new agreement terminates the compulsory agreement, and the interested workers and employers are left free to agree in each enterprise on new working conditions applicable to each one of them.

In case of failure to comply with the stipulations of a compulsory collective contract, an action for damages may be brought by trade-unions, individual workers, or employers, against the unions which are parties to the contract, against members of such unions, and in general, against any other body bound by such contract.

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Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor¹

Fair Labor Standards Act

DISCHARGED employee reinstated under Wage-Hour Law.—The United States District Court for the Southern District of New York directed an employer to reinstate an employee whom he had discharged because the employee had sued him in a State court for back wages under the Fair Labor Standards Act (*Walling v. O'Grady*, 6 Wage Hour Rept. 1207).

The court found that the employee's discharge violated section 15 (a) (3) of that act, which makes it unlawful "to discharge or in any other manner discriminate against any employee" who may institute or testify in any proceeding related to the act. The court, in an oral opinion, held that it was immaterial whether the employee won or lost in the State court, and that the Government need not show, in order to sue the employer in a Federal court, that the employee was covered by the act. Any other ruling, it was said, would discourage employees from suing for their back wages or testifying in suits or any other proceedings related to the act.

The court concluded, however, that it had no power to award back pay in the suit brought by the Administrator, apparently basing this ruling on two grounds: (1) The Administrator was not expressly authorized by the act to sue for back wages, and (2) the employee could sue for them himself.

Restitution of wages included in consent decree.—The Federal Court for the District of Minnesota in *Walling v. Addison Miller, et al.* (47 Fed. Supp. 1004), held that an employer who consented to a court order forbidding him to violate the Fair Labor Standards Act in the future (consent decree) could not be required by such an order to pay back wages (the amounts by which he had underpaid his employees in the past).

Sections 11 (a) and 17 of the Fair Labor Standards Act provide that, on the Administrator's application, a court shall issue orders forbidding an employer to violate the act; section 16 (b) of the act permits employees to sue for recovery of underpayments and for an equal amount as damages. The district court, ruling on a motion to vacate the decree, held that it lacked power, in its restraining order, to require the employer to make these payments. This ruling was based upon the same two grounds as the decision of the District Court for the Southern District of New York, noted above, that the act

¹ Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

did not expressly permit the Administrator to sue for these amounts, and that the employee himself could sue for them.

The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals, however, reversed the lower court and upheld the order for payment of back wages.² The court considered it unnecessary to decide whether the Administrator could obtain an order for payment of back wages in those cases where the employer resisted the entry of such an order, because in this case the employer, by consenting, had lost his right to object to the order.

One of the three judges thought that the Administrator could obtain an order requiring the employer to pay the sums withheld from employees in violation of the act. In his view, any withholding of the specified wage violated the act. He stated that this violation continued for as long as the employer refused to pay in accordance with the act, and the court was empowered not only to restrain future violations but to require the payment of wages unlawfully withheld.

Wage-Hour Law applicable to night watchmen.—The United States Supreme Court, in *Walton, Admz. v. Southern Package Corp.*,³ held that the Fair Labor Standards Act covers a night watchman guarding a building in which production for interstate commerce is carried on during daylight hours.

A watchman in a veneer-manufacturing plant sued his employer in a Mississippi court for overtime compensation and damages. He was a night guard in a plant in which veneer was manufactured from logs. The final product was shipped in interstate commerce. The watchman recovered in the trial court.

The Wage-Hour Act provides minimum wages and overtime compensation for employees engaged in commerce or in the production of goods for commerce. Section 3 (j) declares that "for the purposes of this act an employee shall be deemed to have been engaged in the production of goods if such employee was employed in producing * * * such goods, or in any process or occupation necessary to the production thereof, * * *." (52 Stat. 1061, U. S. C. title 29, sec. 203 (j).)

The Mississippi Supreme Court reversed the trial court and agreed with the contentions of the employer, that the night watchman performed no manual labor connected with production since he did not protect the goods awaiting shipment in interstate commerce, and that his duties were not necessary to the production of the final article because no goods were produced at night.

The United States Supreme Court, reversing, in turn, the Mississippi Supreme Court, relied on *A. B. Kirschbaum Co. v. Walling*, 316 U. S. 517, in which the maintenance of a safe, habitable building was held indispensable to continuous production. The Court noted that the company employed the night watchman mainly in order to obtain a low insurance rate. This fact was considered to demonstrate the close relationship of the watchman's services to the process of production.

Wage-order coverage.—In *Pearson v. Walling*⁴ the question arose whether the wage order for the lumber and timber products industry covered the production of bows and arrows. The order included "the manufacture of specialized timber products." The employer argued that the Administrator's definition of specialized timber prod-

² — Fed. (2d) — (Nov. 9, 1943).

³ No. 150, — Sup. Ct. — (Jan. 3, 1944).

⁴ — Fed. (2d) — (Nov. 10, 1943).

¹ Discussed in
No. 71, — 8
1st Fed. Sup.

ucts did not include manufacture of bows and arrows, and that these articles therefore should not be regarded as "lumber and timber products" as defined by the order.

The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals held that the wage order, by referring to "the manufacture of specialized timber products, including but without limitation shingles, cooperage, stock, veneer plywood, and veneer packaging" put the employer sufficiently on notice that his product "is in all reasonable certainty covered by the definition * * *"

The court relied on the general principle that in framing a definition for wage-order purposes, the Administrator need only "outline with reasonable clarity and certainty the general limits or extent of the industry sought to be covered" and is "not required, nor could he be expected, to make an enumeration of the many minor products that might be involved in the industry * * *"

Anti-Kick-Back Act

Under the Federal Anti-Kick-back Act [U. S. C. title 40, sec. 276(b)] "whoever" induces an employee on a public-works project "to give up any part of the compensation to which he is entitled under his contract of employment * * *" is guilty of a crime. The Third Circuit Court of Appeals, in *United States v. Laudani*, 134 Fed. (2d) 847,⁵ held that a foreman, with authority to employ and discharge workers engaged in public construction work, was not guilty of receiving a kick-back from workers, since he did not pay any part of their wages. The statute, the court held, makes it a crime only when the employee gives up a portion of his contractual wage to the employer or one acting for him. It was held that the act was not intended to reach an extortioner or blackmailer who was not a party to the contract of employment. This decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals has been reversed by the United States Supreme Court.⁶

The Supreme Court observed that the term "whoever" in the statute, which refers to those prohibited from inducing kick-backs, "would be wide enough to include not only an employer, but any other person." The Court did not decide whether the act applied to every extortioner or blackmailer, but held that a foreman who demanded part of the compensation of employees on threat of their dismissal came under the act because he had a direct relationship to the contract of employment.

In the Court's opinion, the Anti-Kick-back Act was designed to assure that Federal funds paid to workers for work on Federal projects should actually be received by them for their own use. It was observed that this purpose might be thwarted by foremen as well as employers, when, as in the case before the Court, the foreman had the authority to hire and to fire employees.

In *United States v. Fuller*⁷ the United States District Court for the Northern District of New York considered a similar problem. A foreman, acting as the employer's agent, agreed with union officials that employees who were ineligible for union membership should pay

⁵ Discussed in Monthly Labor Review May 1943 (p. 946) and October 1943 (pp. 786, 787).

⁶ No. 71, — Sup. Ct. — (Jan. 3, 1944).

⁷ 1st Fed. Supp. 651 (Sept. 7, 1943).

for work permits issued by the union. The possession of a permit was a prerequisite to working on the job.

The district court held the foreman and officers of the union criminally responsible under the Federal Anti-Kick-back Act, and stated that the statute was not limited to rebates to employers but was broad enough to encompass others who induced workers to give up part of their pay in order to protect their job.⁸

Railway Labor Act

The right of courts to review administrative proceedings of the Mediation Board has been limited in recent decisions by the United States Supreme Court.

The Railway Labor Act (45 U. S. C., sec. 151 et seq.) guarantees the right of collective bargaining to crafts or classes of railway employees. Among other things, it gives the National Mediation Board authority to investigate railway disputes and designate the bargaining agent for the employees involved.

In *Switchmen's Union of North America v. National Mediation Board*⁹ the Board had investigated a dispute between two rival unions, both claiming to represent the yardmen of a certain railroad system. The switchmen's union insisted that yardmen in certain parts of the system should not be compelled to vote in a system-wide election, but should be allowed to vote for separate representatives for those parts. The Board denied this claim, and the rival union was later certified as the bargaining agent for the whole system. When the switchmen's union sued to cancel the certification of its rival, the District Court and the Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed the decision of the Board.

In a 4 to 3 decision (two justices not participating), the United States Supreme Court reversed the lower court on the ground that it had no authority to entertain the suit.

Section 2 (4) of the Railway Labor Act gives to the "majority of any craft or class of employees" the "right" to determine who shall be the representative of the craft or class for the purpose of the act. This "right" is protected by granting the Mediation Board authority to resolve disputes concerning its exercise. Congress having created special machinery for the adjudication of issues concerning such rights, and the Federal courts not having any specific or express authority over such issues, and the legislative history apparently supporting such a conclusion, it was held that the Board's certification is not reviewable in the courts.

A similar result was reached in *General Committee of Adjustment of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers for the Missouri-Kansas-Texas Railroad v. Missouri-Kansas-Texas Railroad Co.*¹⁰ There a union jurisdictional dispute was submitted for mediation to the National Mediation Board and settled by a mediation agreement. In an action

⁸ Compare *State of Washington v. Carter*, 118 Wash., Dec. 563,—Pac. (2d)—(July 26, 1943), on rehearing—Pac. (2d)—(Oct. 25, 1943), interpreting a similar State law.

⁹ No. 48, 64 Sup. Ct. 95 (Nov. 22, 1943).

¹⁰ No. 23, 64 Sup. Ct. 142 (Nov. 22, 1943).

¹¹ Also see *Businesses for the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers*.
¹² No. 435.
¹³ No. 29.

to determine the validity of that agreement the Supreme Court, on review, held that the courts had no power to decide the merits of the controversy.¹¹

The principles announced by the Supreme Court had an interesting application in the case of *Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees v. United Transport Service Employees of America*. In this case, a railroad employer had refused to recognize a union of station redcaps. The National Mediation Board dismissed an application for investigation of the dispute because redcaps were not a separate "class or craft" within the meaning of the Railway Labor Act, and therefore not entitled to separate representation; they could be represented only as part of a recognized union which represented all the clerical, office, station, and warehouse employees. The District Court reversed the ruling of the Board, and this reversal was affirmed by the Circuit Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia on the ground that the redcaps, because of their color, were not entitled to membership in the certified union. Following the rule that the Federal courts may not review such determinations of the Mediation Board, the United States Supreme Court reversed, without opinion, the decision of the Court of Appeals.¹²

Workmen's Compensation Laws

A worker who has obtained workmen's compensation in Texas cannot subsequently obtain compensation for the same injury under the Louisiana Workmen's Compensation Law. This was decided by the United States Supreme Court in *Magnolia Petroleum Co. v. Hunt*.¹³

A Louisiana resident was injured while drilling oil wells in Texas. He recovered an award for his injury under the Texas Workmen's Compensation Law. He then sued in the Louisiana District Court to recover compensation for his injury under the Louisiana Workmen's Compensation Law. The District Court awarded him compensation under the Louisiana statute, but deducted all payments he had received under the Texas statute.

■ The United States Supreme Court had to decide whether, under the "full faith and credit" clause (art. IV, sec. 1) of the Federal Constitution, the Texas award barred a subsequent recovery for the same injury under the Louisiana Workmen's Compensation Law. The court, in a 5 to 4 decision, reversed the Louisiana Court of Appeals (10 So.(2d) 109) which had affirmed the opinion of the Louisiana District Court.

Article IV, section 1 of the United States Constitution requires that "Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State, * * *." This provision is interpreted as requiring that a judgment of a court in one State shall be conclusive of the rights of the parties in the courts of every other State. Since the Texas award was found by the court

¹¹ Also see companion cases: No. 27, *General Committee of Adjustment of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers for the Pacific Lines of Southern Pacific Co. v. Southern Pacific Co. and General Grievance Committee of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen*; and No. 41, *General Grievance Committee of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen v. General Committee of Adjustment of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers for the Pacific Lines of Southern Pacific Co.*, 64 Sup. Ct. 142 (Nov. 22, 1943).

¹² No. 435, — Sup. Ct. — (Dec. 6, 1943). Petition for rehearing was denied (Mr. Justice Rutledge was of the opinion that it should be granted). — Sup. Ct. — (Jan. 10, 1944).

¹³ No. 20, 64 Sup. Ct. 208 (Dec. 20, 1943).

to be final there, it must also be final in Louisiana, and separate recovery in Louisiana was prevented thereby.

Mr. Justice Black, in one of the dissenting opinions, stated that the majority opinion in effect, held that Texas could deny the protection which the Louisiana statute intended to give, and that such control of one State by another was not intended by the full faith and credit clause.

Mr. Justice Douglas, also dissenting, held that States have such an interest in their own workmen's compensation legislation, that the policies in each of the several States should be given as much leeway as possible unless they cannot be reconciled with each other.

Picketing

The United States Supreme Court in two cases, *Cafeteria Employees Union, Local 302 v. Angelos* and *Cafeteria Employees Union, Local 302 v. Tsakires*,¹⁴ has reaffirmed the basic principle that picketing by labor unions is an exercise of freedom of speech guaranteed by the Federal Constitution.

In one of the cases, a cafeteria was picketed for the purpose of union organization, although the business was carried on at the time by the owners themselves. The picket signs declared the business "unfair" and gave the impression that the unfairness was directed toward organized labor and that the pickets had been employed in the cafeteria. The pickets also told customers entering the establishment that they would be served bad food and that by "patronizing it" they were "aiding the cause of Fascism." The State court found that these representations were false and therefore subject to judicial restraint.

In the second case the State court found that customers entering a cafeteria were told that there was a strike in progress and were insulted. The employers obtained a court order restraining picketing at or near the premises (264 App. Div. 708, 34 N. Y. S. (2d), 408, affirmed 289 N. Y. 498, 46 N. E. (2d) 903 and 46 N. E. (2d) 908). The lower court found that no "labor dispute" existed as defined in the State Anti-Injunction Act (New York Civil Practice Act, sec. 876-a). That act prohibits the issuance of an injunction in the presence of a labor dispute. In respect of both cases, the New York Court of Appeals held that a "labor dispute" exists only where the employer-employee relationship is present, and since there were no employees of the cafeteria in either case the injunction should issue.

Without adverting to the basis of the State court decisions, namely, the absence of an employer-employee relationship, and in reversing those decisions, the United States Supreme Court held that the actions complained of were protected by section 1 of the fourteenth amendment guaranteeing freedom of speech. The Court relied on its previous decision in *A. F. of L. v. Swing* (312 U. S. 321), in which it was said (p. 326) that a State cannot so limit the right of employees to publicize a dispute "by drawing the circle of economic competition between employers and workers so small as to contain only an employer and those directly employed by him."

¹⁴ Nos. 38, 37, 64 Sup. Ct. 126 (Nov. 22, 1943).

In connection with the claim that the representations of the pickets were false and, therefore, not protected by the constitutional guaranty, the Court observed that labor slogans like "unfair" and "Fascist" are not false but are "loose language of undefined slogans that are part of the conventional give-and-take in our economic and political controversies * * *."

Decisions of State Courts

Free speech in publicizing labor dispute.—The extent to which a labor journal may publicize the facts of a labor dispute was discussed by the California Supreme Court in *Emde, et al. v. San Joaquin County Central Council, et al.* (143 Pac. (2d) 20).

A collective agreement between a local union and a dairy company prohibited employees from making any individual contracts with the company in conflict with the union agreement. The company wished to change its method of operating its milk routes, and proposed a new plan to its drivers. Under its terms, the drivers were to become "distributors" who would buy the trucks and the milk from the company. The plan, however, was silent on the minimum wage and hours of delivery established in the union agreement. One union driver and two nonunion drivers consented to operate under this arrangement. The union driver was later suspended from the local for his action. Efforts on the part of the union to persuade the company to abandon its plan failed.

The dispute was publicized in a labor journal. Among other things, the newspaper articles accused the company of violating its contract with the local union, of hiring nonunion drivers, and of "initiating" a "destructive labor policy," and urged the public generally to cease patronizing the dairy. The dairy brought a libel suit in the Superior Court of San Joaquin County, California, against the labor organizations and officers involved, as well as the owners of the labor journal.

From a judgment for the company, an appeal was taken to the Supreme Court of California. This court, in reversing the lower court, held that publicizing the facts of a labor dispute was within the area of free discussion guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. It held that an even broader scope is afforded to publications which are intended to further the proper purposes of groups with a common interest. The court observed that "the particular controversy between the dairy and the union in the present action, involving as it does the dissatisfaction of organized labor with a system of distributing milk products which avoids minimum wages and hours, workmen's compensation, and social-security benefits, is a legitimate matter of labor dispute."

It further held that those connected with the cause of labor had the right to urge the public to refrain from buying the dairy's products unless it complied with the union contract, even though the company suffered losses as a result of this economic pressure. The communication was held by the court to be privileged unless it was published with malice. Since the publishers printed the articles in good faith to further a legitimate labor purpose, the court observed that the dairy had the remedy of counterpublicity to overcome the effects of the union publicity.

Validity of closed-shop contract.—In *Hamer v. Nashawena Mills, Inc.* (13 Lab. Relat. Rept. 477), employees who were not members of the union that had been certified by the National Labor Relations Board as the exclusive bargaining agent in the plant sued to enjoin enforcement of the closed-shop provisions of the collective agreement between the union and the employer. They claimed that they were in danger of losing their jobs if they refused to join the certified union. The lower court denied the application for a restraining order and the Massachusetts Supreme Court affirmed the decision. In its decision, the court said:

The validity of a closed-shop agreement, if freely and voluntarily made primarily for the mutual advantage of the parties, has always been upheld, even if the opportunity for securing employment by other workmen not members of the contracting union may thereby be greatly restricted or practically destroyed.

The court held that, in carrying out a collective agreement, the union acted not only for its members but for all employees in the unit, because the union had been designated as the collective bargaining agent for the unit.

A closed-shop contract was attacked in an unusual manner in *Watson, Florida ex rel. v. Tampa Shipbuilding Co.* In that case, the Attorney General of Florida, in the name of the State and in a "quo warranto proceeding," sued a shipbuilding company engaged in war work to prevent it from carrying out a closed-shop agreement with certain labor unions. The Attorney General charged that, as a condition of State incorporation, the company agreed to refrain from entering into contracts which violated State law; that closed-shop contracts constituted "an unlawful combination with the unions and monopoly in restraint of the equal right to work"; that such contracts were contrary to public policy and that the corporation was without authority to enter into or operate under a closed-shop contract.

The trial court found that the "closed-shop" provisions in the agreement were "invalid by virtue of present war conditions * * *" and ordered the company and the unions to cancel them. The Supreme Court of the State, however, in a 4 to 2 opinion, reversed this decision¹¹ and held that a contract for the manufacture of war materials is within the jurisdiction of Federal agencies and not of State courts. Furthermore, it was held that the record did not demonstrate that the performance of the closed-shop agreement had adversely affected the war effort.

The court observed that the Federal procurement agencies directly interested in the employer's production had not considered the closed-shop agreement to be detrimental to the efficient prosecution of the war. It adopted the view that the public policy as to what furthered war production should be determined, not by State courts, but by those Federal agencies charged with the responsibility of letting contracts for the prosecution of the war.¹²

The court denied that the contract was contrary to public policy and observed that "the parties may negotiate any contracts not contrary to law or good morals. Management is free to hire only union men if it chooses. Likewise, labor is free to work only with union men if it chooses. The fact that a few laborers may be denied work in the particular plant or shop, unless they join the union, will not, of itself, vitiate such contract."

¹¹—So. (2d) — (Nov. 10, 1943).

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¹² 174 S. V.
¹³ United
Report No.
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Registration of labor organizers.—A Texas law provided criminal penalties for paid labor organizers who solicited union membership without first obtaining organizers' cards from the secretary of state. Under this statute (Vernon's Annotated Texas Statutes, art. 5154a, sec. 5), a temporary restraining order was issued against a paid labor organizer who threatened to violate the statutory provisions. The organizer disobeyed the terms of the court order by soliciting members for his union without having registered with the secretary of state. He was adjudged in contempt of court and penalized according to the statute. He then filed a petition for habeas corpus in the Texas Supreme Court to obtain his release from jail.

The principal argument of the organizer was that the State statute violated the right of freedom of speech as guaranteed by section 1 of the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution and a similar provision in the State constitution.

The Texas Supreme Court in *Ex parte Thomas*¹⁶ rejected the organizer's contention and held the regulation constitutional. It said that a State may, under its police power, enact legislation to protect the health, safety, and welfare of the public; and that legislation requiring registration of labor organizers was a proper subject of regulation, as it tended to prevent the defrauding of laborers by imposters who might represent themselves as bona fide union organizers.

The court pointed out that the statute did not interfere with the right of individual union members to solicit others to join a union, but applied only to paid organizers; that the regulation was not a license, but merely a registration and identification of the organizers; and that no discretion to refuse to issue the registration cards was vested in the secretary of state as it was his mandatory duty to issue them upon application.

Application has been made to the Supreme Court of the United States for review of the decision of the Texas Supreme Court.



Repeal of Chinese Exclusion Acts

ON December 17, 1943, an act was approved which repealed the Chinese exclusion laws, placed Chinese persons on a small-quota basis, and made persons of the Chinese race eligible to become naturalized citizens of the United States.¹⁷

In a message of October 11, 1943, to the Congress, the President said in part: "China's resistance does not depend alone on guns and planes and on attacks on land, on the sea, and from the air. It is based as much on the spirit of her people and her faith in her allies. We owe it to the Chinese to strengthen that faith. One step in this direction is to wipe from the statute books those anachronisms in our law which forbid the immigration of Chinese people into this country and which bar Chinese residents from American citizenship."

¹⁶ 174 S. W. (2d) 959 (Oct. 27, 1943).

¹⁷ United States: Public Law 199, 78th Congress, first session, approved December 17, 1943; Senate Report No. 535, 78th Congress, first session, Repealing the Chinese Exclusion Laws and to Establish Quotas, Washington, November 1943.

The treaty of 1880 between this country and China recognized the need of a control over Chinese laborers coming to the United States. As an outcome of that treaty and later treaties, a series of laws was enacted on the matter of Chinese exclusion and other subjects concerning Chinese immigration, the last law in the series being that of June 23, 1913.

The new legislation repealed all the laws passed between 1882 and 1913 dealing with the exclusion and deportation of Chinese persons.

Section 2 of the new act reads as follows:

With the exception of those coming under subsections (b), (d), (e), and (f) of section 4, Immigration Act of 1924 (43 Stat. 155; 44 Stat. 812; 45 Stat. 1600; 46 Stat. 854; 47 Stat. 656; 8 U. S. C. 204), all Chinese persons entering the United States annually as immigrants shall be allocated to the quota for the Chinese computed under the provisions of section 11 of the said act. A preference up to 75 per centum of the quota shall be given to Chinese born and resident in China.

No very appreciable gain for the Chinese people resulted from this provision, from the viewpoint of the number of Chinese permitted to enter the country, as the quota provided for under the above section amounted only to 105 per annum.

Section 3 of the act makes it possible for Chinese persons to become citizens of the United States through naturalization. Under previously existing legislation, persons of the Chinese race born in the United States were born citizens of this country. Under the so-called Second War Powers Act passed by the preceding Congress (77th) persons "of all races serving honorably in the armed forces were made eligible for citizenship." This provision was also applicable to the Chinese. Up to the enactment of the new law, with the exception of special classes—for instance, persons serving in the armed forces—"only white persons, or persons of the African black race, or persons of races indigenous to the Western Hemisphere (Western Hemisphere Indians) are racially eligible for naturalization." Section 3 of the repealing act adds Chinese to these three classes.

The number of Chinese who will actually be able to become citizens under section 3 of the new act is slight. The approximate number of alien Chinese in the United States, according to the 1940 census, was about 42,000, of whom 37,242 were in Continental United States and 4,844 in Hawaii. However, a very substantial proportion of them have never been admitted to this country for lawful permanent residence, which is one of the requisites for naturalization. Consequently, many of this group could not be naturalized—not because of racial disability but because they could not meet existing legal requirements. The number who will be eligible for citizenship in the future will, of course, be small, because China's quota limit, as stated above, is only 105 a year.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Earnings in Oil-Well Drilling and Crude-Petroleum Production in the Southwest, April 1943¹

Summary

A STUDY of 21,805 males in selected occupations, employed in 401 companies engaged in petroleum production and the drilling of oil and gas wells, in Oklahoma, Texas, and Louisiana, reveals that 58 percent of these workers were in jobs which showed straight-time average hourly earnings of \$1.00 or more. Approximately 8 percent were in occupations paying \$1.25 or more per hour. As a group the employees studied averaged \$1.02 per hour in April 1943.

Hourly earnings of workers in Texas averaged \$1.03, in Louisiana \$1.02, and in Oklahoma 99 cents. The highest average hourly wage (\$1.06) was paid in the Texas Gulf Coast area and the lowest (95 cents) in North Texas. The wages paid by large companies were consistently higher than those paid by the small ones. Companies operating under bargaining agreements with unions—generally the larger companies—paid higher wages than those without such agreements.

Among the 18 individual key occupations studied, that of rotary driller showed the highest average wage, \$1.52 per hour. Cable drillers averaged only \$1.15, and ranked below class A machinists (\$1.33), class A electricians (\$1.31), class A carpenters (\$1.19), and gang pushers (\$1.17). Watchmen (63 cents) earned the lowest wages.

Scope and Method of Study

This study of wages in the production and drilling branches of the petroleum industry was undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics primarily to provide data for use by the War Labor Board in its administration of the national wage-stabilization program. In view of the fact that this is the most comprehensive study of wages ever made of the petroleum industry in the Southwest, its results should be of interest to management and labor also.

The companies included in the survey fall into three categories: (1) Those which engage in production only, maintaining no drilling department; (2) those which engage in production and maintain a drilling department which does all or part of the drilling; and (3) those which do drilling exclusively. Of the 401 companies studied, 71 were engaged exclusively in drilling, whereas the remaining 330 either possessed drilling divisions in connection with production activities or

¹ Prepared by Joe E. Brown of the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis, Region XII, Dallas, Tex. The Bureau is indebted to the many officials of cooperating companies through whose courtesy these data were made available. A preliminary edition (mimeographed) of this article was issued earlier by the Bureau, and was used in the January 1944 issue of the *Petroleum Engineer*.

were engaged solely in production. The Bureau's study covered both oil-well drilling and production but not rig building.²

The companies studied represent approximately 90 percent of those employing 9 or more workers which were in operation at the time this study was made. More than nine-tenths of the workers employed in the drilling and production branches of the oil industry in Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana were found in these companies.

As is characteristic of the oil industry, many of the companies studied were engaged in multiple operations.³ The 401 companies included in the study were found to control a total of 730 separate operations in the Southwest, and many of them were operating in more than one of the areas referred to. Of the total operations, 501 were in Texas, 157 in Oklahoma, and 72 in Louisiana.

The wage data used in this report were taken directly from pay-roll records by trained agents of the Bureau, and relate to the pay-roll period ending nearest April 15, 1943. Care was taken to insure comparability of occupation from company to company through the use of standard job descriptions, each employee being classified according to the duties he performed rather than by his occupational title.

Average hourly earnings, exclusive of premium overtime payments and shift differentials, were obtained for 18 key occupations in the industry. Of the approximately 40,000 workers employed by the companies surveyed, 21,805 plant employees were studied. Several criteria were used in the selection of these occupations: (1) Definiteness and clarity of the occupational classification; (2) numerical importance; (3) critical importance to the war effort; (4) importance from the standpoint of collective bargaining; and (5) representativeness of range of rates. It is apparent that all these requirements are not equally satisfied by the occupations selected. Considered as a whole, however, they are believed to present an adequate picture of the wage structure of the industry.

Characteristics of the Industry

In 1942 the States of Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana produced 53.3 percent of the Nation's oil.⁴ Texas produced approximately 35 percent, Oklahoma accounted for 10 percent, and Louisiana over 8 percent. Of the producing wells at the end of 1942, this Southwest region possessed nearly 40 percent—approximately 25 percent in Texas, 13 percent in Oklahoma, and nearly 2 percent in Louisiana. During this same year, these three States produced 739,572,000 barrels of crude oil. Of this amount, Texas produced approximately 65 percent, Oklahoma 19 percent, and Louisiana almost 16 percent. At the close of the year the boundaries of the three States contained 159,750 producing wells. Sixty-three percent of these wells were in Texas, 33 percent in Oklahoma, and approximately 4 percent in Louisiana. Production figures for areas within the State of Texas

² Recognition is given to the fact that rig building is broadly considered a part of drilling operations. Technically, however, it exists as a separate phase of the industry and has therefore been excluded from this study. A comprehensive study of wages prevailing in the refining industry of the Southwest appeared in the *Monthly Labor Review* for January 1944 (p. 124).

³ An "operation" is considered to include all the drilling and/or production activities of a company which are within any one of the areas designated for purposes of this study. For example, there are six designated areas in Texas, and this would be the maximum number of operations which any one company would be considered to have in this State.

⁴ Figures based on Bureau of Mines annual petroleum statement, No. P-241.

show that approximately 30 percent of the State's production comes from the Texas Gulf Coast, about 25 percent from East Texas, 17 percent from West Texas, 13 percent from Southwest Texas, 9 percent from North Texas, and 6 percent from the Panhandle. Of Louisiana's total production, the Louisiana Gulf Coast accounts for 75 percent and North Louisiana for the remainder.

Differentiation among the various drilling and production areas appears to be based upon variations in such factors as geological structure, depth of production, type of oil produced, gas pressures, refining quality of oil, and amount and type of production.

At the end of 1942, oil and gas operations were found in every county in Texas; 168 counties of the State, produced oil or gas, and leasing and drilling activities were to be found in the remaining 86 counties. There are over 750 separate oil fields in Texas. These fields are grouped, however, and the industry generally recognizes 6 distinct production and drilling areas (designated in table 1). Wells in Texas, especially in the Texas Gulf Coast and Southwest Texas areas, are generally deeper than those in Oklahoma. Slightly less than 40 percent of the wells in Texas flow while the remainder are on pump. Approximately 32 percent of the Texas wells are "strippers,"¹ the majority of these being in the North Texas area.

The Louisiana oil fields are generally in the northern and southern areas of the State, with few fields in the central region. There are two general concentrations of oil fields in North Louisiana—one in the western section near the Texas border and the other in the east central portion. The South Louisiana fields are scattered throughout the southern part of the State, and, as is characteristic of wells along the Gulf Coast, are of the deeper type, contain high gas pressures, and consequently require heavier rigs and more highly skilled labor than the wells farther north. Approximately 45 percent of the wells in Louisiana are of the stripper class, North Louisiana possessing most of these.

Although the industry recognizes no particular difference in areas of production and drilling in Oklahoma (and consequently none are made for purposes of this study), the northeastern part of the State is characterized by older and generally shallower deposits. Wells in the central part of the State, an area which embraces fields in the Seminole and Oklahoma City region, are deeper and probably more active from a drilling standpoint. No great differences in drilling problems appear to exist, however, throughout the State of Oklahoma. Production is characterized by a low per-well productivity, 95 percent of the wells producing less than 25 barrels per day. Approximately 88 percent of the wells in Oklahoma are of the "stripper" type.

DRILLING AND PRODUCTION

The policy regarding drilling varies from company to company. Some companies maintain drilling departments adequate to carry on all of their drilling operations while others make use of the services of contract drilling companies. It is common practice, even among those companies with their own drilling departments, to contract for a large

¹ The term "stripper" is applied to any well producing less than 5 barrels per day, which is taking from the reservoir and the last oil which can be mechanically and physically pumped out. Many of these wells are operated on an extremely narrow margin of profit.

amount of drilling. In general, the tendency seems to be towards a greater utilization by all companies of contract drilling service.

Cable-tool and rotary drilling are the two methods in use. Cable-tool drilling, the older of the two, is used primarily for shallow drilling and is becoming less and less important as it is necessary to tap deeper oil deposits. This method involves dropping a sharp digging instrument, attached to the end of a cable, repeatedly into the hole being dug. It has been estimated that, as late as 1918, about 95 percent of the oil wells were drilled by this method.

Relatively little cable-tool drilling is found in Texas and Louisiana, but about 40 percent of the wells in Oklahoma are drilled by this method.

The rotary method of drilling involves the use of a revolving bit which bores into the earth. The development of this method of drilling, along with heavier and stronger materials such as casings, drill stems, and larger derricks and power units, has made possible the deeper wells of the present-day oil industry.

Most drilling rigs are operated by steam, although diesel and electric power are becoming more and more common. A rotary drilling rig consists of the derrick, including the crown block, cables, moving block, drill stem, and drilling machinery, the power unit (steam, diesel, or electric), mud pumps, pipe, and pipe racks, and a crew house. Near the derrick is a series of slush pits from which mud of varying thickness and weight is pumped for circulation through the well, the thickness and weight of the mud depending on the gas pressure existing or likely to be encountered in the well.

When drilling takes place in a proved field or territory, data on the sand stratum from which production is expected are usually obtained in advance. In such cases the distance from the earth's surface to the sand is known within rather close limits, and drilling goes forward rapidly, usually without benefit of "coring" operations (i. e., extraction of sand, for analysis) until the oil sand is approached. In a "wildcat" operation there is usually no accurate information available as to what sand strata, if any, lie beneath the surface, nor the depth to or between them. In such operations coring may be required throughout the entire depth of the hole, thereby slowing completion of the well. It is common practice in wildcat wells for drilling to be carried through one or more sands which normally would have been considered "pay" sand. This is done for purposes of securing information concerning the sands present in the area, their quality, and the depths to be drilled in order to reach them.

Whether or not drilling takes place in a proved field, if it is determined that production is possible and economically practical from any of the sands encountered, steps are taken to "bring in" the well. The "bringing in" of an oil well, primarily a responsibility of the driller, requires both skill and patience. The exact technique employed varies with the type of production which is expected, i. e., flowing, pump, or air or gas lift. In any event the casing must be set and tubing run. After these operations are completed, the well which is expected to flow is equipped with a "Christmas tree"—an elaborate arrangement of outlets, valves, and gauges essential to test the pressure of the well and control its flow. At this point the well is ready for swabbing or some other technique designed to start the flow of oil from the well.

The production of petroleum involves the bringing of the oil to the surface and its diversion to storage or appropriate transportation facilities. Also involved are such items as maintenance of wells, lease grounds, and other lease property.

The Labor Force

The labor force engaged in drilling and production activities in this region consists almost entirely of male workers. Even under pressure of the present labor shortage there is as yet no indication that this characteristic will be altered. Workers engaged in drilling activities are generally considered more mobile as a group than are production workers. The drilling crew usually follows the rig from area to area and, in general, remains intact. Wages paid to these workers are not ordinarily affected by labor conditions common to the locality in which the rig happens to be operating. Production employees, on the other hand, who do not move from place to place so frequently, often receive wages characteristic of the community in which they work. The effect of the labor situation in the individual community on wages paid to these employees is influenced considerably, however, by such factors as size and policy of the company involved and type of production.

The movement of labor in the drilling and production segments of the oil industry is, in general, confined to areas similar with respect to such factors as depth of the deposit and gas pressures. An example of this is found in the characteristic movement of workers among the oil-producing regions along the Gulf Coast and the relative lack of such movement between the coastal regions and the northern areas possessing shallower deposits and lower gas pressures.

OCCUPATIONAL COMPOSITION

The make-up of the crew usually required to operate a rig depends on the drilling method and power being used. A typical crew for a steam-driven rotary rig consists of a rotary driller, a fireman, two rotary floormen, a derrickman, and a tool pusher.⁶ The driller is the key man in any drilling crew. On him rests responsibility not only for the safety of his crew, but also for the care of the expensive equipment of which the rig is composed. He must be continually alert for the particular formations in which he is drilling, in order not to overlook desirable oil sands. He must keep an accurate log of his drilling activities and be ready to meet emergencies created by high gas pressures, broken cables, and the finding of unusual geological formations. Both the skill involved and the inherent responsibility of this occupation are reflected in the wages received by drillers.

Throughout the oil industry rotary firemen, rotary floormen, and derrickmen are referred to as "roughnecks." An increasing number of smaller companies make no distinction in the duties of these three occupational classifications, paying the same rate for each. For purposes of this study these workers, when assigned a variety of duties, have been classified as "rotary driller helpers, not elsewhere classified." Average hourly earnings of such workers, since they reflect primarily the wage levels of small companies, have a tendency

⁶ Roughabouts are commonly employed in the preparation of a drilling site and in setting up and removing equipment other than the derrick. However, they are not usually considered part of the drilling crew.

to be somewhat lower than the corresponding earnings of rotary firemen, rotary floormen, and derrickmen employed by larger companies. Some of the larger companies, also, have tended toward less specialization of such workers in recent years. The trend in this direction will no doubt be influenced by the degree to which diesel engines or electricity replace steam power, thus removing the need for a fireman and reducing the range of skills required to handle work of the floor, derrick, and power unit.

The tool pusher, whose principal duty consists of keeping a supply of sharp bits and other materials on hand, usually divides his time among a number of rigs operating in the same vicinity.

The duties of drilling-crew workers are usually strenuous and continually expose them to varying degrees of danger. Heavy blocks, cables, and tongs are in continuous movement overhead. The danger of blowouts, which sometimes result in fire, is always present. A derrickman must spend much of his time far up in the derrick. During recent years improved equipment and drilling techniques, accompanied by such safety devices as blowout preventers and weight indicators, have made the job somewhat less hazardous.

Once the well is producing, the job of the drilling crew is over. The rig is moved to other drilling sites and the care of the well becomes the responsibility of production workers, chief of which are pumpers and/or switchers and roustabouts.

Activities relating to the bringing of the oil to the surface and regulating its flow to storage or transportation facilities are carried on by pumpers and/or switchers; the pumpers normally tend wells which are pumped and the switchers tend those which flow under natural reservoir pressure. The pumpers and switchers together constitute the largest occupational group in oil drilling and production.

Roustabouts, who perform those duties of lease and well maintenance requiring relatively little skill, are often referred to as the "common labor" of the oil industry. The duties of roustabouts, however, are ordinarily more responsible than those of common laborers and involve work which is consistently heavy and frequently dangerous; the wages paid to roustabouts are generally considerably higher than those paid to ordinary common labor. It should be noted that the use of roustabout labor is not confined exclusively to production activities; roustabouts are frequently employed in pipe-lining and well servicing, and occasionally in drilling operations (particularly in the preparation of slush pits, laying of water and fuel lines, and moving equipment onto and off the drilling site).

The skill required and the responsibility involved in production, as well as in drilling activities, vary with the characteristics of the producing area involved. In fields where little or no gas pressure is present and wells are characterized by low productivity, relatively less skill and responsibility is required as compared with fields characterized by extremely high gas pressures, high productivity, and deep wells.

METHOD OF WAGE PAYMENT

Workers in the drilling and petroleum production industry are almost universally paid on a time basis. With negligible exceptions, overtime is paid for at the rate of time and a half, after 40 hours a week or 8 hours a day. A considerable amount of overtime was being worked at the time of the Bureau's study. Incentive systems of

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pay are not generally found in the drilling and production phases of the oil industry. Oil-well drilling and production ordinarily proceed continuously, requiring 3 shifts for some occupations. Premium payments for late-shift work, however, are uncommon.

UNIONIZATION

Of the 401 companies surveyed for this study only 17, or 4.2 percent, were found to have bargaining agreements with unions. Of these 17 firms, 9 were affiliated with the Oil Workers' International Union (C. I. O.), and 2 with the International Union of Operating Engineers (A. F. of L.); 6 were independent unions. The 17 companies having union agreements, although constituting only 4.2 percent of the total companies covered, conducted more than 11 percent of the total operations in the Southwest and employed more than 30 percent of the employees, thus indicating that unionization is most prevalent among the larger companies. Thirteen percent of the operations in Oklahoma were conducted by companies with union agreements; the corresponding ratio for Texas was 10 percent, whereas in Louisiana only 1 percent of the operations were so classified.

Average Hourly Earnings

The 21,805 employees covered by this survey earned an average of \$1.02 in April 1943. Evidence available from other Bureau wage surveys in the Southwest indicates that earnings in this industry are relatively higher than those prevailing in most other industries in this area.

Regional variations in wages within the Southwest were not marked. A study of average earnings for each State, as shown in the accompanying tabulation, reveals a difference of 1 cent per hour in earnings of workers in Texas and Louisiana (\$1.03 and \$1.02, respectively). In Oklahoma, with its relatively shallow fields and high percentage of cable-tool drilling, as well as its characteristic low productivity per well and high degree of stripper activity, workers averaged 99 cents per hour.

More specific area comparisons indicate slightly greater wage differences. In North Louisiana workers averaged 99 cents per hour, while in the Louisiana Gulf Coast they earned an average of \$1.05. This difference is probably the result of variations in such factors as depth of production and gas pressures, as well as degree of activity of the larger oil companies. The majority of Louisiana's stripper wells are in North Louisiana.

	Average hourly earnings ¹
Southwest.....	\$1.02
Texas.....	1.03
Panhandle.....	1.01
West Texas.....	1.03
North Texas.....	.95
East Central Texas.....	1.04
Southwest Texas.....	1.04
Gulf Coast.....	1.06
Louisiana.....	1.02
North Louisiana.....	.99
Gulf Coast.....	1.05
Oklahoma.....	.99

¹ Exclusive of premiums for overtime and night-shift work. In preparing these area averages, constant compositional weights were used, based on the distribution of workers by occupations in the Southwest as a whole.

The average wage paid to workers in Texas ranged from 95 cents per hour in North Texas to \$1.06 per hour in the Texas Gulf Coast area. This range can be explained only in terms of a complex interplay of several influences. For example, rates in the Texas Gulf Coast and Southwest Texas areas reflect the presence of very deep drilling and production, extremely high gas pressures, and a high proportion of major companies. On the other hand, the average earnings received by workers in North Texas reflect the absence of the factors mentioned above and the influence of low per-well productivity, a high percentage of stripper wells, and high per-barrel production cost. The major oil companies have under lease large undeveloped acreages in this area, but their present activity is confined largely to exploratory operations; hence drilling and production are dominated by the smaller independent companies.

In East Central Texas, workers received an average of \$1.04 per hour, in West Texas, \$1.03, and in the Texas Panhandle, \$1.01. It should be noted that both the area with the highest average wage and that with the lowest are in Texas.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EARNINGS

The average for individual occupations in the Southwest ranged from 63 cents per hour for watchmen to \$1.52 for rotary drillers (table 1). Of the 18 occupations studied, only that of watchmen (including less than 1 percent of the total number of workers) showed average hourly earnings of less than 80 cents in the region as a whole. Five occupations, pumpers and switchers, rotary driller helpers not otherwise classified, rotary floormen, roustabouts, and truck drivers (under 2½ tons), accounted for 77 percent of the workers and had average earnings ranging from 80 cents to \$1 per hour. Twenty-two percent of the workers were employed in the 12 remaining occupations which showed average hourly earnings of \$1 and over.

Pumpers and switchers, the occupational classification in which the largest number of workers (36.4 percent) were employed, averaged 99 cents per hour, while roustabouts, accounting for the next largest group (24.2 percent) averaged 94 cents. Cable drillers averaged only \$1.15 per hour, as compared with the \$1.52 for rotary drillers. Derrickmen and rotary firemen each showed an average of \$1.03 an hour, while the average for rotary floormen was 99 cents. Rotary driller helpers not otherwise classified, employed primarily in small operations, earned an average of 93 cents an hour.

The distribution of employees according to operation averages for the various occupations reveals that approximately 12 percent were in jobs averaging less than 80 cents per hour, about 30 percent were in those averaging from 80 cents to \$1, and 58 percent were in jobs paying \$1 and over. Approximately 8 percent were in occupations that averaged \$1.25 or more.

Relatively few rotary drillers or class A machinists, it will be noted, received less than \$1.40 per hour, while comparatively few watchmen received more than 80 cents. In view of the rather modest geographical differences in the general average wages previously given, the marked dispersion of wage rates in some occupations is, however, rather surprising. Extreme differences involving only a few workers, to be sure, may reflect the influence of unusual circumstances and

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should not be regarded as highly significant. It is of interest to note, however, that substantial numbers of pumpers and switchers were found in both the lower and higher wage ranges. Nearly 1,200 roustabouts were paid less than 80 cents per hour, while more than 1,000 others received \$1.10 or more. The wide range of wages found within the same occupational classification reflects, in addition to the area differences noted above, differences in size and policy of company, differences with respect to unionization, and other factors.

TABLE 1.—Distribution of Male Oil-Well Drilling and Production Workers in Selected Occupations in the Southwest, by Operation Average Hourly Earnings,¹ April 1943

Occupation	Number of operations	Total workers		Average hourly earnings	Number of workers in operations where hourly earnings averaged—				
		Number of workers	Percent		Under \$0.80	\$0.80 and under \$0.85	\$0.85 and under \$0.90	\$0.90 and under \$0.95	\$0.95 and under \$1.00
All workers:									
Number.....		21,805			2,590	471	1,029	1,878	3,325
Percent.....			100.0		11.9	2.2	4.7	8.6	15.2
Carpenters, class A.....	16	25	.1	\$1.19					1
Carpenters, class B.....	20	41	.2	1.33	5				4
Derrickmen.....	144	1,012	4.6	1.03	8	3		83	295
Drillers, cable.....	58	198	.9	1.15			3		
Drillers, rotary.....	225	1,353	6.2	1.52				1	
Electricians, class A.....	17	25	.1	1.31					
Electricians, class B.....	9	15	.1	1.05				1	
Gang pumpers.....	243	947	4.3	1.17	29	15	14	38	7
Machinists, class A.....	12	18	.1	1.33					
Maintenance men.....	77	167	.8	1.00	40	8	2	17	13
Pumpers and switchers.....	570	7,945	36.4	.99	988	232	312	450	1,069
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified.....	88	1,539	7.1	.93	60	44	343	331	477
Rotary firemen.....	108	785	3.6	1.03	16	3	22	72	224
Rotary floormen.....	134	1,836	8.4	.99	16	3	154	409	650
Roustabouts.....	440	5,271	24.2	.94	1,181	125	124	448	545
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons.....	98	284	1.3	.86	121	4	7	5	18
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over.....	75	196	.9	1.02	17	30	1	14	20
Watchmen.....	70	148	.7	.63	125	4	3	4	
Occupation	Number of workers in operations where hourly earnings averaged—								
	\$1.00 and under \$1.05	\$1.05 and under \$1.10	\$1.10 and under \$1.15	\$1.15 and under \$1.20	\$1.20 and under \$1.25	\$1.25 and under \$1.30	\$1.30 and under \$1.35	\$1.35 and under \$1.40	\$1.40 and over
All workers:									
Number.....	3,039	2,868	2,782	1,764	406	114	65	200	1,284
Percent.....	13.9	13.1	12.8	8.1	1.9	.5	.3	.9	5.9
Carpenters, class A.....	1	3		7	2	11			
Carpenters, class B.....	7		20	3					
Derrickmen.....	275	11	56	68	149	20			
Drillers, cable.....	48	22	58		14	20	10	8	12
Drillers, rotary.....	16		3	13	3	18	30	83	1,186
Electricians, class A.....	1		3	4	1	1	1		14
Electricians, class B.....		1	4					1	1
Gang pumpers.....	46	43	113	300	144	27	15	108	53
Machinists, class A.....	3			29	21	7	1		14
Maintenance men.....	8	13	6	799	45	4	2	1	
Pumpers and switchers.....	639	2,228	1,173						3
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified.....	214		58	12					
Rotary firemen.....	206	11	68	161	12	6			
Rotary floormen.....	98	27	185	294					
Roustabouts.....	1,445	382	1,016	5					
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons.....	20	90	1	16	2				
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over.....	11	16	18	53	13		2		1
Watchmen.....	1	11							

¹ Exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night-shift work.

Inter-area differences in occupational rates, although more pronounced than the differences in the regional averages, are, in most cases, moderate (table 2). Watchmen received the lowest wages in each of the 3 States represented and rotary drillers the highest rates. The greatest differences reflected, for the most part, variations in the earnings of relatively small numbers of workers.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings of Male Oil-Well Drilling and Production Workers in Selected Occupations in the Southwest, by Area, April 1943¹

Occupation	Texas							
	Entire State					Texas Pan-handle		West Texas
	Number of operations	Number of workers	General average	Lowest operation average	Highest operation average	Number of workers	General average	Number of workers
Carpenters, class A	10	18	\$1.21	\$0.98	\$1.27	(2)	(2)	(2)
Carpenters, class B	16	32	1.03	.75	1.15	(2)	(2)	(2)
Derrickmen	99	683	1.06	.65	1.27	34	\$0.99	151
Drillers, cable	32	144	1.17	1.00	1.77	70	1.22	24
Drillers, rotary	153	943	1.54	.90	1.87	35	1.48	220
Electricians, class A	13	20	1.30	1.10	1.42	(2)	(2)	(2)
Electricians, class B	8	14	1.06	.96	1.42	(2)	(2)	(2)
Gang pushers	161	620	1.18	.56	1.58	49	1.15	96
Machinists, class A	8	14	1.32	1.00	1.42	(2)	(2)	(2)
Maintenance men	45	77	1.05	.49	1.30	(2)	(2)	15
Pumpers and switchers	405	5,151	1.00	.32	1.40	428	1.00	663
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified	68	1,277	.93	.71	1.18	39	.95	372
Rotary firemen	76	551	1.05	.85	1.27	27	.97	113
Rotary floormen	88	1,186	1.01	.68	1.18	42	.96	226
Roustabouts	295	3,104	.95	.36	1.15	313	.95	384
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons	66	183	.87	.40	1.16	14	.88	32
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over	53	122	1.04	.54	1.44	10	1.02	19
Watchmen	52	123	.63	.30	1.08	(2)	(2)	9

Occupation	Texas							
	North Texas		East Central Texas		Southwest Texas		Texas Gulf Coast	
	Number of workers	General average	Number of workers	General average	Number of workers	General average	Number of workers	General average
Carpenters, class A			4	\$1.22	(2)	(2)	8	\$1.23
Carpenters, class B	7	\$1.08	3	1.11	4	\$1.10	16	.87
Derrickmen	89	.94	65	1.08	76	1.09	268	1.00
Drillers, cable	43	1.16	7	1.09				
Drillers, rotary	165	1.44	86	1.58	86	1.61	350	1.38
Electricians, class A	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	11	1.25
Electricians, class B	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	9	.99
Gang pushers	0	1.13	126	1.20	82	1.25	185	1.19
Machinists, class A	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	6	1.21
Maintenance men	11	.99	25	1.08	4	1.13	20	1.04
Pumpers and switchers	810	.91	1,350	1.01	527	1.01	7,373	1.04
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified	250	.90	74	.93	101	.88	441	.95
Rotary firemen	58	.95	52	1.08	65	1.10	236	1.07
Rotary floormen	173	.92	129	1.04	133	1.05	481	1.04
Roustabouts	528	.90	689	.96	358	.93	832	.99
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons	28	.78	44	.94	20	.94	45	.86
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over	33	.90	13	1.14	4	1.24	43	1.05
Watchmen	13	.45	18	.59	9	.61	72	.86

¹ Exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night-shift work.

² Number of plants and/or workers too small to justify presentation of an average.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings of Male Oil-Well Drilling and Production Workers in Selected Occupations in the Southwest, by Area, April 1943—Continued

Occupation	Louisiana						
	Entire State					North Louisiana	
	Number of operations	Number of workers	General average	Lowest operation average	Highest operation average	Number of workers	General average
Carpenters, class A.....	(¹) 3	(¹) 8	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Carpenters, class B.....	21	172	\$1.02	\$0.90	\$1.11	(¹)	\$1.02
Derrickmen.....	8	4	1.01	.85	1.24	28	1.06
Drillers, cable.....	30	195	1.06	1.01	1.08	30	1.06
Drillers, rotary.....	(¹)	(¹)	1.52	1.00	1.82	(¹)	1.50
Electricians, class A.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Electricians, class B.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Gang pushers.....	23	91	1.20	.60	1.62	43	1.14
Machinists, class A.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Maintenance men.....	11	44	.92	.76	1.37	30	.85
Pumpers and switchers.....	49	715	1.02	.38	1.24	357	.90
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified.....	8	93	.98	.88	1.12	(¹)	(¹)
Rotary firemen.....	15	151	1.01	.92	1.18	16	.99
Rotary floormen.....	20	372	.98	.85	1.16	42	.94
Roustabouts.....	37	530	.92	.50	1.11	284	.89
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons.....	18	54	.82	.50	1.24	37	.70
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over.....	5	7	1.14	1.05	1.18	(¹)	(¹)
Watchmen.....	9	14	.66	.40	1.08	4	.49

Occupation	Louisiana		Oklahoma				
	Louisiana Gulf Coast		Entire State				
	Number of workers	General average	Number of operations	Number of workers	General average	Lowest operation average	Highest operation average
Carpenters, class A.....	(¹) 7	(¹)	(¹) 4	(¹) 5	\$1.10	\$1.00	\$1.18
Carpenters, class B.....	144	\$1.04	(¹) 24	(¹) 157	(¹) .95	(¹) .82	(¹) 1.19
Derrickmen.....	16	1.01	16	50	1.08	.89	1.33
Drillers, cable.....	156	1.52	42	215	1.45	1.00	1.88
Drillers, rotary.....	(¹)	(¹)	3	3	1.34	1.00	1.58
Electricians, class A.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Electricians, class B.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Gang pushers.....	48	1.26	59	236	1.13	.61	1.87
Machinists, class A.....	14	1.06	3	3	1.40	1.40	1.40
Maintenance men.....	358	1.04	21	46	1.00	.68	1.30
Pumpers and switchers.....	81	1.00	116	2,079	.97	.45	1.14
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified.....	135	1.01	12	169	.93	.64	1.12
Rotary firemen.....	330	.99	17	83	.97	.82	1.14
Rotary floormen.....	246	.96	26	278	.94	.60	1.12
Roustabouts.....	17	1.07	108	1,637	.92	.45	1.10
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons.....	6	1.14	19	47	.89	.43	1.08
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over.....	10	.73	17	67	.97	.75	1.16
Watchmen.....	10	.73	9	11	.65	.30	1.04

¹ Number of plants and/or workers too small to justify presentation of an average.

A more important factor which contributes to interplant variation in wage rates is difference in the size of companies involved (table 3). Quite commonly, the major oil companies, operating over a wide area, follow the policy of paying one rate for each occupational classification in all the areas in which the company operates. Because of the need for attracting and maintaining a labor force in all areas regardless of

local labor conditions, the wage rates paid by these companies are generally higher than those paid by smaller companies with more or less local operations. It follows that areas in which the major oil companies are particularly active tend to have a higher level of wages than those in which operations are largely confined to small independent companies.

Occupational averages were consistently higher in the medium-size companies than they were in small companies. Likewise, averages in the large companies were consistently higher than those in the medium-size group. Pumpers and switchers, for example, averaged 80 cents an hour in small companies, 94 cents in medium-size companies, and \$1.07 in the large ones. Roustabouts averaged 73 cents in small companies, as compared with 86 cents in medium-size companies and \$1.03 in the large-size group. Rotary drillers averaged \$1.46, \$1.48, and \$1.61, respectively, while for gangpushers the corresponding averages were \$1.06, \$1.12, and \$1.21.

TABLE 3.—Average Hourly Earnings of Male Oil-Well Drilling and Production Workers in Selected Occupations in the Southwest, by Size of Company, April 1943¹

Occupation	Small companies (9-50 employees)		Medium companies (51-250 employees)		Large companies (251 or more employees)	
	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings
Carpenters, class A	4	\$1.04	(²)	(²)	20	\$1.23
Carpenters, class B	5	.75	4	\$1.01	32	1.07
Derrickmen	205	.95	338	1.00	460	1.09
Drillers, cable	136	1.11	27	1.21	35	1.23
Drillers, rotary	336	1.43	475	1.48	540	1.61
Electricians, class A	2	1.06	6	1.18	17	1.40
Electricians, class B	126	1.06	(²)	(²)	14	1.09
Gang pushers	(²)	(²)	181	1.12	640	1.21
Machinists, class A	33	.96	49	1.01	85	1.02
Maintenance men	1,554	.80	1,333	.94	5,066	1.07
Pumpers and switchers	548	.91	666	.93	325	.98
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified	151	.96	240	.96	304	1.00
Rotary firemen	344	.96	559	.93	993	1.05
Rotary floormen	1,157	.73	899	.86	3,215	1.00
Roustabouts	67	.69	61	.70	106	.80
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons	27	.88	48	.99	121	1.00
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over	33	.50	58	.64	87	.72
Watchmen						

¹ Exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night-shift work.

² Number of workers too small to justify presentation of an average.

Wage rates in companies having union agreements were consistently higher than those in companies without such agreements (table 4). Roustabouts averaged \$1.06 per hour in union companies as compared with 86 cents in nonunion establishments. Rotary drillers averaged \$1.80 in union companies and \$1.47 in those with no union. The hourly average in union companies for pumpers and switchers was \$1.08 while in nonunion firms it was 93 cents. As the union companies included in this study were generally the large organizations, the precise influence of these two factors individually is uncertain. A special comparison of the largest companies by presence or absence of unionization, however, reveals slightly higher rates among those having union agreements.

TABLE 4.—Average Hourly Earnings of Male Oil-Well Drilling and Production Workers in Union and Nonunion Companies in the Southwest, April 1943¹

Occupation	Companies with union agreements		Companies without union agreements	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Carpenters, class A.....	15	\$1.22	10	\$1.15
Carpenters, class B.....	22	1.10	19	.94
Derrickmen.....	186	1.22	826	.99
Drillers, cable.....	10	1.40	188	1.13
Drillers, rotary.....	263	1.80	1,180	1.47
Electricians, class A.....	15	1.42	10	1.15
Electricians, class B.....	6	1.16	9	.99
Gang pushers.....	449	1.20	498	1.14
Machinists, class A.....	15	1.39	3	1.02
Maintenance men.....	71	.98	96	1.02
Pumpers and switchers.....	3,222	1.06	4,723	.93
Rotary driller helpers, not otherwise classified.....	5	.71	1,534	.93
Rotary firemen.....	194	1.17	591	.99
Rotary floormen.....	408	1.14	1,428	.95
Households.....	2,127	1.06	3,144	.86
Truck drivers, under 2½ tons.....	133	.98	151	.76
Truck drivers, 2½ tons and over.....	62	1.10	144	.98
Watchmen.....	24	.84	124	.60

¹ Exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night-shift work.

Wages and Hours of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, July 1, 1943¹

Summary

THE average union wage rate for motortruck drivers in 75 cities surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, as of July 1, 1943, was 94.4 cents per hour; helpers averaged 77.1 cents; the combined groups, 91.9 cents. A majority of the drivers (58 percent) earned between 80 cents and \$1.05 per hour, while a majority of the helpers (54.7 percent) received rates between 70 and 90 cents per hour. On the basis of comparable quotations, hourly wage rates advanced 4.6 percent for drivers and 4.7 percent for helpers during the 13-month period from June 1, 1942, to July 1, 1943.

The average basic workweek was 46.4 hours for drivers and 46.2 for helpers. The range in weekly hours was from 32 to 78. About 39 percent of the drivers and helpers had a 48-hour week, 26.5 percent had a 40-hour week, and 11 percent worked a basic 44-hour week. The weekly hours of 97 percent of the drivers and helpers remained unchanged during the 13-month period preceding July 1.

Scope and Method of Study

This study is one of a series of annual surveys made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering union scales in various trades in 75 principal cities of the United States. The data were collected by field representatives of the Bureau, who called upon the officials of the local unions in each city to obtain the rates provided in their agreements with employers and the number of persons working under each wage scale. Scales in negotiation or before the National War Labor Board at the time our representatives called were further checked before the data were tabulated so that increases retroactive to July 1, 1943, would be reflected in this report.

The figures are for city trucking primarily, although over-the-road drivers were included when they were paid on an hourly rather than a mileage basis. The report includes 3,152 wage quotations covering 238,415 union members, of whom 86 percent were drivers and 14 percent were helpers. The averages presented are weighted according to the number of union members receiving each rate and thus reflect not only the actual rates provided in union agreements but also the number of members benefiting from those scales.

The term "truck drivers" covers a heterogeneous group of occupations, such as drivers of building and excavating trucks, coal trucks, ice trucks, general hauling and transfer trucks, delivery trucks hauling various and miscellaneous commodities, and express and freight trucks. In each of the many classifications of hauling, different types and sizes of trucks are commonly used. Each branch of the trucking industry and each size and type of truck usually has a different wage rate. Furthermore, there is great variation among the different cities, not only in commodities handled and types of trucks but also in the termi-

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

nology used to describe the different kinds of trucking. For these reasons it is impossible to make an intercity classification by types. All truck driving in each city studied is treated as one trade, division being made only between drivers and helpers.

Most frequently the union agreements specify hourly rates as the basis of wage payment for drivers doing local hauling, or making local deliveries which do not involve sales functions, although daily or weekly wage scales are not uncommon. For purposes of this study the daily and weekly wage scales have been converted to an hourly basis whenever the agreements specified the number of hours for which the scales applied; otherwise they have been omitted. Some trucking agreements, although specifying wages on an hourly, daily, or weekly basis, do not state the number of hours that shall constitute full time, and these quotations necessarily have been omitted in the computation of average full-time hours and in the table showing the distribution according to hours per week.

Agreements covering route drivers, particularly those handling bakery products, beer, laundry, and milk, commonly classify the drivers as salesmen. Ordinarily, the compensation of these drivers is specified as a weekly guaranty, plus various commissions based upon the volume of deliveries or collections. Similarly, the agreements covering over-the-road drivers commonly specify either trip or mileage rates rather than hourly wage scales. All quotations specifying such commission, trip, or mileage wage scales, which could not be converted to an hourly basis, have been excluded from the computations in this report.

Distribution of Members by Hourly Wage Rates

Almost 58 percent of the union truck drivers received hourly wage rates between 80 cents and \$1.05, about 29 percent of them being between 85 and 95 cents. Only 16 percent of the drivers received less than 80 cents per hour, while over 26 percent received \$1.05 or more. Rates for individual driver classifications ranged from 38.3 cents per hour for relay laundry drivers on routes between Atlanta, Ga., and nearby cities, to \$2.00 per hour for operators of dump trucks with a capacity of 8 cubic yards or over in St. Louis.

More than half (54.7 percent) of the helpers had rates of at least 70 cents but less than 90 cents per hour, while several (6.2 percent) received over \$1.00. Nearly 5 percent earned less than 50 cents per hour. Helpers' rates ranged from 30 cents per hour for linen drivers' helpers in Birmingham to \$1.25 per hour for helpers on theatrical-equipment trucks in New York.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hourly Wage Rates, July 1, 1943

Classified hourly rate	Percent of union members with classified hourly rates			Classified hourly rate	Percent of union members with classified hourly rates		
	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers		Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Under 40 cents.....	0.1	(1)	0.6	\$1.00 and under \$1.05.....	11.6	12.8	4.3
40 and under 45 cents.....	.2	0.1	1.4	\$1.05 and under \$1.10.....	5.5	6.3	1.8
45 and under 50 cents.....	.7	.4	2.8	\$1.10 and under \$1.15.....	6.3	7.2	.5
50 and under 55 cents.....	1.2	.8	8.9	\$1.15 and under \$1.20.....	3.5	4.0	.3
55 and under 60 cents.....	2.0	1.7	3.6	\$1.20 and under \$1.25.....	3.2	3.7	.2
60 and under 65 cents.....	3.0	2.3	7.2	\$1.25 and under \$1.30.....	2.9	3.4	(1)
65 and under 70 cents.....	2.7	1.8	8.1	\$1.30 and under \$1.35.....	.6	.7	
70 and under 75 cents.....	5.1	3.9	12.8	\$1.35 and under \$1.40.....	.6	.7	
75 and under 80 cents.....	6.0	4.8	13.8	\$1.40 and over.....	.5	.6	
80 and under 85 cents.....	9.6	8.5	16.3				
85 and under 90 cents.....	14.8	16.1	11.8	Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
90 and under 95 cents.....	12.3	13.8	3.1	Average hourly rate.....	\$0.919	\$0.944	\$0.771
95 cents and under \$1.00..	7.6	7.5	8.4				

(1) Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Trend of Wage and Hour Scales

Since 1936, the first year for which comparable quotations for the trucking industry were available, the trend of wage scales has been consistently upward, and except for 1942 the trend of regular weekly hours generally downward. During the 13-month period, June 1, 1942, to July 1, 1943, union hourly wage rates for motortruck drivers increased on the average 4.6 percent, while helpers' rates were increased 4.7 percent. Basic weekly hours for drivers decreased 0.3 percent; those of helpers 0.2 percent.

The slight decrease in basic weekly hours for truck drivers and helpers is due to the decrease in local delivery services, in accordance with rulings of the Office of Defense Transportation.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change in Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours for Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, 1936-43

Yearly period	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Hourly wage rate	Weekly hours	Hourly wage rate	Weekly hours	Hourly wage rate	Weekly hours
1936 to 1937.....	+6.6	-0.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1937 to 1938.....	+3.6	0	+3.6	0	+3.5	0
1938 to 1939.....	+2.2	-9	+2.2	-8	+2.6	-1.1
1939 to 1940.....	+2.0	-9	+2.1	-8	+2.0	-1.1
1940 to 1941.....	+4.0	-7	+3.8	-7	+5.0	-1.1
1941 to 1942.....	+7.0	+4	+6.8	+1	+8.7	+2.4
1942 to 1943.....	+4.6	-3	+4.6	-3	+4.7	-1

(1) Not available.

Hours and Overtime, 1943

Weekly hours.—The average full-time weekly hours in effect for union truck drivers in the 75 cities surveyed on July 1, 1943, was 46.4 and the average for helpers was 46.2 (table 3).

The basic workweek of 37.8 percent of the drivers and 43.7 percent of the helpers was 48 hours. The 40-hour week covered 27.0 percent

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of the drivers, and 23.4 percent of the helpers. Also common was the 44-hour week covering 10.9 percent of the drivers, and 11.3 percent of the helpers. Basic weeks of over 48 hours were worked by 19.0 percent of the drivers, and 13.2 percent of the helpers. The shortest workweek was reported in Milwaukee, where coal, coke, and oil drivers and helpers had a 32-hour week from April 1 to September 30; the longest was in Des Moines, Iowa, where soft-drink drivers and helpers worked a 78-hour week during the summer months.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hours Per Week, July 1, 1943

Hours per week	Percent of union members with classified hours per week		
	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Under 40.....	0.8	0.8	1.1
40.....	26.5	27.0	23.4
Over 40 and under 44.....	.5	.5	1.0
44.....	11.0	10.9	11.3
Over 44 and under 48.....	4.3	4.0	6.3
48.....	38.7	37.8	43.7
Over 48 and under 54.....	6.9	7.7	2.1
54.....	6.3	6.1	7.9
Over 54 and under 60.....	.6	.6	.5
60.....	4.3	4.5	2.6
Over 60.....	.1	.1	.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0
Average weekly hours.....	46.4	46.4	46.2

The effect of the Fair Labor Standards Act, in limiting straight-time working hours to 40 per week for workers in interstate commerce, was reflected in a number of motortruck drivers' agreements. The majority of the drivers, however, as is indicated by the prevalence of hour scales in excess of 40 per week, were considered either as working in strictly intrastate commerce, to which the Act does not apply, or were drivers of common, contract, or private motor carriers engaged in transportation in interstate commerce, which are generally exempt from the overtime provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Drivers in the latter classification are subject to the regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which has ruled that no employer of drivers operating vehicles in interstate commerce may require drivers in its employ to remain on duty for more than 60 hours in a period of 168 consecutive hours, with the exception that carriers operating vehicles every day of the week may permit drivers to remain on duty 70 hours in a period of 192 consecutive hours. These drivers however, are limited to 10 hours' aggregate driving in any period of 24 hours, unless they are off duty 8 consecutive hours during or immediately following this driving period. An exception from the daily limitation is made in the event of adverse weather conditions or unusually adverse road or traffic conditions necessitating hours of driving in excess of 10, when drivers may be permitted to operate vehicles up to 12 hours in any given workday, provided, however, that the extra 2 hours are necessary to complete a trip.²

² An essential difference between the hour regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the Fair Labor Standards Act should be noted. Whereas the Interstate Commerce Commission regulations specify maximum hours which may not be exceeded, the regulations under the Fair Labor Standards Act merely specify the maximum hours that may be worked at straight-time rates, and do not limit the number of total hours that may be worked, provided time and a half is paid for all hours in excess of the specified normal week.

Overtime rates.—Time and a half was specified as the initial overtime rate in over four-fifths of the quotations, covering 89 percent of the drivers and 85 percent of the helpers. A few quotations covering only one-tenth of 1 percent of the total members called for double-time rates for overtime. Other penalty scales such as a fixed monetary rate, time and one-third, or time and one-fourth were indicated in 3.5 percent of the quotations, which included about 4.0 percent of the drivers and helpers combined. In many of the quotations (11.5 percent) no penalty rate was provided and in some cases overtime was prohibited because of Interstate Commerce Commission regulations.¹

A number of union agreements provided a daily or weekly tolerance under which a limited amount of overtime could be worked before the penalty rate became effective. This tolerance usually ranged from 4 to 6 hours per week.

Several agreements guaranteed a certain amount of overtime each week at the penalty rate of time and a half. This provision is not uncommon for drivers subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act, which limits the maximum weekly hours that may be worked at straight time to 40 per week. By a guaranty of a definite number of hours each week at time and a half, the "take home" pay is increased without changing the basic rates.

Changes in Wage Rates and Hours Between 1942 and 1943

Wage rates.—Forty-two percent of the quotations containing comparable data for 1942 and 1943, including slightly over half (50.9 percent) of the union truck drivers and slightly less than half (49.5 percent) of the helpers, indicated increases in hourly wage rates during the 13-month period from June 1, 1942, to July 1, 1943. There were no reductions in wage rates reported for any driver or helper classification during this period.

Among the drivers who benefited by increases in the 13-month period, the largest number (45.0 percent) received between 10 and 15 percent. The next largest number (33.0 percent) received between 5 and 10 percent increases. Less than 10 percent of those receiving increases, and less than 5 percent of the total union drivers included in the study received advances of 15 percent or more.

TABLE 4.—Extent of Increases in Wage Rates of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers and Percent of Members Affected, July 1, 1943, as Compared with June 1, 1942

Extent of increase	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
All increases.....	1, 233	50.7	990	50.9	243	49.5
Less than 5 percent.....	152	6.1	126	6.4	36	4.1
5 and under 10 percent.....	455	17.2	377	16.8	78	10.6
10 and under 15 percent.....	412	22.4	319	22.9	93	10.1
15 and under 20 percent.....	127	3.7	103	3.6	24	4.5
20 and under 25 percent.....	40	.7	28	.6	12	1.2
25 and under 30 percent.....	25	.3	19	.2	6	1.0
30 and under 35 percent.....	11	.1	11	.2	0	0
35 and under 40 percent.....	4	.1	2	.1	2	.1
40 percent and over.....	7	.1	5	.1	2	(¹)

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

² See footnote 2, page 385.

The largest percentage of helpers who benefited from increases (40.1 percent) received between 5 and 10 percent and over 37 percent obtained raises of between 10 and 15 percent, while 14.1 percent of those getting increases and 7.0 percent of the total union helpers covered had raises of 15 percent or more.

Maximum weekly hours.—The weekly hour scales reported for almost 97 percent of the union membership remained unchanged during the 13-month interval between the two surveys. About 3 percent of the quotations, applying to 3.1 percent of the members, called for reductions in the maximum weekly hours permitted without payment of overtime. Increases in weekly hours were reported in only 22 driver and 3 helper quotations affecting only 0.3 percent of the combined memberships.

*Average Rates by City **

The average rate for drivers in each city included in the survey is shown in table 5. Seattle had the highest composite average (\$1.154 per hour), New York with an average almost 4 cents per hour less (\$1.116) was second, followed closely by nearby Newark where the average was \$1.105. All other averages exceeding \$1.00 were found in West Coast cities: Spokane (\$1.078), Los Angeles (\$1.049), Portland, Oreg. (\$1.025), and San Francisco (\$1.017). In addition, four other cities—Detroit, Cleveland, Phoenix, and Chicago—had averages that were higher than the average for all cities (\$0.944). Twenty-seven cities had averages between 80 and 90 cents, 18 between 70 and 80, and only 11 under 70 cents. San Antonio had the lowest average (\$0.550).

*Average Rate Changes in Each City **

Norfolk, Va., where the average wage rate for drivers (\$0.708) was substantially below the average for all cities combined, recorded the highest percentage increase in wage rates (17.3 percent) based on comparable rate quotations for June 1, 1942, and July 1, 1943. All except one of the comparable quotations from Norfolk called for increases, which ranged from 8 to 20 cents per hour. El Paso had the next highest percentage increase (16.7 percent), followed closely by Jackson, Miss. (15.8 percent) and Wichita, Kans. (15.3 percent). Only three other cities had average increases of as much as 10 percent: Richmond (13.3), Providence (12.1), and Binghamton (11.7). Nineteen additional cities had increases that exceeded the average increase (4.6 percent) for the combined 75 cities. Five cities reported no change in scales.

* The average rate shown for each city is a composite of all rates quoted for each different type of truck drivers, weighted by the number of union members earning each rate.

* These percentage changes are based on specific rates weighted by the number of members working at each rate. Only those quotations showing comparable data for both 1942 and 1943 are included. Specific increases during the 13-month period of this study will reflect larger percentage changes among those classifications with comparatively lower scales; e. g. if freight drivers in city A increase their scale 10 cents per hour from 70 to 80 cents an average increase of 14.3 percent is registered, while if in city B the same increase raises the rate from \$1.10 to \$1.20 per hour the percentage change is only 9.1 percent. For this reason those cities which had lower scales tend to show greater percentage increases than those which had higher scales.

TABLE 5.—Average Hourly Rates of Union Motortruck Drivers, by City, July 1, 1943, and Percent of Increase Over Previous Year¹

City	Average hourly rate	Percent of increase	City	Average hourly rate	Percent of increase
Seattle, Wash.	\$1.154	1.6	Dayton, Ohio	.819	4.9
New York, N. Y.	1.116	6.1	Denver, Colo.	.817	1.4
Newark, N. J.	1.105	7.6	Worcester, Mass.	.817	6.6
Spokane, Wash.	1.078	4.7	Baltimore, Md.	.811	2.9
Los Angeles, Calif.	1.049	4.4	Little Rock, Ark.	.806	.4
Portland, Oreg.	1.025	8.4	Madison, Wis.	.805	.8
San Francisco, Calif.	1.017	7.3	Jacksonville, Fla.	.800	6.5
Detroit, Mich.	.997	3.4	Kansas City, Mo.	.798	6.4
Cleveland, Ohio	.960	1.0	Erie, Pa.	.790	1.4
Phoenix, Ariz.	.957	.3	Scranton, Pa.	.790	4.1
Chicago, Ill.	.950	6.2	Charleston, W. Va.	.787	4.1
Average, all cities	.944	4.6	Rock Island (Ill.) district ²	.782	2.2
Pittsburgh, Pa.	.940	.6	Grand Rapids, Mich.	.777	7.1
Mobile, Ala.	.927	2.1	Duluth, Minn.	.774	2.3
Butte, Mont.	.925	.4	Reading, Pa.	.771	3.2
Boston, Mass.	.913	5.1	Louisville, Ky.	.770	2.7
Toledo, Ohio	.905	2.8	Des Moines, Iowa	.769	2.1
Milwaukee, Wis.	.899	1.8	Portland, Maine	.749	2.8
Salt Lake City, Utah	.899	1.8	Memphis, Tenn.	.737	.1
South Bend, Ind.	.899	2.4	Omaha, Nebr.	.718	1.6
Philadelphia, Pa.	.897	2.9	Charleston, S. C.	.712	0
Washington, D. C.	.889	2.3	Norfolk, Va.	.708	12.3
New Haven, Conn.	.888	3.5	Manchester, N. H.	.703	0
Providence, R. I.	.886	12.1	Wichita, Kans.	.701	15.5
Youngstown, Ohio	.885	2.8	El Paso, Texas	.700	16.7
Columbus, Ohio	.880	1.8	York, Pa.	.700	6
Buffalo, N. Y.	.878	2.7	Oklahoma City, Okla.	.696	2.1
Minneapolis, Minn.	.875	6.5	Atlanta, Ga.	.673	4.7
St. Paul, Minn.	.872	5.3	Nashville, Tenn.	.666	2.4
Cincinnati, Ohio	.859	8.8	Birmingham, Ala.	.660	.1
Springfield, Mass.	.850	5.0	Houston, Texas	.640	4.3
Rochester, N. Y.	.844	1.4	Richmond, Va.	.636	11.1
Peoria, Ill.	.832	3.6	Jackson, Miss.	.630	18.9
Tampa, Fla.	.823	0	Charlotte, N. C.	.629	2.1
Binghamton, N. Y.	.822	11.5	New Orleans, La.	.628	1.6
Indianapolis, Ind.	.821	1.2	Dallas, Texas	.618	2.5
St. Louis, Mo.	.821	6.6	San Antonio, Texas	.550	0

¹ Does not include drivers paid on a commission or mileage basis. Averages are weighted according to number receiving each different rate. Helpers are not included in this table.

² Includes Rock Island, Ill., Davenport, Iowa, and Moline, Ill.

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Union Wage Rates of City Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1943¹

Summary

THE average wage rate of union motormen, conductors, and bus operators in 65 cities was 90.6 cents per hour on July 1, 1943. Slightly more than half of the workers covered by collective agreements had rates from 90 cents to \$1.10 per hour; 6.5 percent earned \$1.10 or more per hour; and 41.5 percent earned less than 90 cents.

During the period from June 1, 1942, to July 1, 1943, average hourly wage rates advanced 5.5 percent to a new index of 129.6, indicating that since 1929 average hourly rates have increased almost 30 percent, and since 1934 (the low point on the index) have increased almost 35 percent.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Hourly Wage Rates of Union Streetcar and Bus Operators, 1929-43

Year	Index (1929=100)	Year	Index (1929=100)	Year	Index (1929=100)
1929	100.0	1934	96.1	1939	109.2
1930	101.0	1935	99.8	1940	110.4
1931	101.0	1936	100.6	1941	114.1
1932	99.0	1937	108.3	1942	122.9
1933	(¹)	1938	108.3	1943	129.6

¹ Not available.

Scope and Method of Study

This study is one of a series of annual surveys started by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1921. Agents of the Bureau visited 75 cities in 1943 and obtained reports on effective union scales as of July 1, 1943, in 65 of these cities. Scales in negotiation or before the National War Labor Board at the time our representatives called were further checked before the data were tabulated so that increases retroactive to July 1, 1943, would be reflected in this report. The rates obtained were for union members employed on local streetcar, subway, elevated, and bus lines and also those employed on city-suburban lines which furnish city service. Employees of strictly intercity or interstate car and bus lines were not included. The 1943 survey included 440 quotations of rates, 422 of which included comparable data for 1943 and 1942. The total quotations included 80,217 union members, of whom 77,320 were included in the reports which gave comparable rates for both years.

The averages presented in this report are weighted according to the number of union members receiving each rate and thus reflect not only the actual rates provided in union agreements but also the number of members benefiting from those scales. The index numbers are based on aggregates computed from the rates quoted for identical unions and service classifications in two successive years. The weights in each year-to-year comparison were the membership figures reported in the second year. The index numbers are so constructed as to eliminate the influence of changes in union membership.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

Because of changes in coverage, the averages presented in successive annual surveys should not be compared from year to year to determine trend. For trend purposes the index numbers (table 1) should be used, since these were computed from comparable quotations only, and the influence of changes in coverage has been eliminated. For comparison of the general wage level of streetcar and bus operators with those of other occupations at the time the survey was made, the average (table 2) should be used.

Hourly Wage Rates

Hourly wage rates in streetcar and bus operations are generally graduated on the basis of an employee's length of service with the company. Most frequently the agreements provide for an entrance rate, an intermediate rate, and a maximum rate. A considerable number, however, specify several intermediate periods, each with successively higher rates. The specified time between rate steps varies widely from city to city. The entrance-rate period is usually 3, 6, or 12 months. The maximum rate most frequently applies after 1 or 2 years of service, but many agreements provide for longer periods, ranging up to 6 years and including as many as 12 progressive rate steps. In 1943 the differences between the entrance rates and the maximum rates ranged from 1.9 cents for guards on the Chicago Elevated Railway to 30 cents per hour for bus operators employed by the Steinway Omnibus Co. and the Third Avenue Railway System, both in New York. The differences most frequently reported were either 5 or 4 cents.

Rates for operators of 2-man cars were reported in 21 of the 65 cities included in the survey, although there has been a definite tendency, during the past few years, to eliminate such cars. In each of these cities the agreements provided higher rates for 1-man-car operators than for either motormen or conductors on 2-man cars; the differences ranging from 3 to 10 cents, the most common being 10 cents. Generally, the rates for bus drivers were the same as for 1-man-car operators.

The entrance rates for operators of 2-man cars ranged from 64.1 cents per hour in Omaha to 95 cents in Detroit. The majority of the entrance rates were between 70 and 85 cents. The highest entrance rate for the industry in the cities covered (\$1.00 per hour) was received by subway motormen in New York. The 1-man-car and bus operators had entrance rates ranging from 46 cents in Tampa to \$1.05 in Detroit; about two-thirds of the entrance rates were between 70 and 90 cents.

An analysis of maximum rates for 2-man-car operators shows that over two-thirds of the rates ranged between 75 and 90 cents per hour, with the lowest rate (68.4 cents) in Omaha and the highest (\$1.05) in Detroit. The maximum rate in the subways (\$1.10) was received by the motormen in New York. Approximately three-fourths of the 1-man-car and bus operators had maximum rates ranging from 80 cents to \$1.00. The lowest rate (54 cents) was in Tampa, the highest (\$1.15) was for bus operators in Detroit. In addition, operators of both 1- and 2-man cars in Detroit receive a premium of 10 cents per hour when they work "owl runs" (those in the late evening and early morning hours). Some other cities reported slightly higher rates for union members operating cars or busses on "owl runs."

As streetcar and bus operators generally remain for long periods in the employ of one company, a majority of the union members reported had reached the maximum rates provided in their agreements. Almost 69 percent of the union members were receiving rates ranging from 80 cents to \$1.00, while over 90 percent were covered by rates in the wider range (70 cents up to \$1.10). Rates of \$1.10 or more were received by 6.5 percent of the members (see table 2).

TABLE 2.—Percentage Distribution of Union Streetcar and Bus Operators by Hourly Wage Rates, July 1, 1943

Classified hourly rates	Percent of union members with classified hourly rates
Under 60 cents.....	0.1
60 and under 70 cents.....	2.2
70 and under 80 cents.....	11.0
80 and under 90 cents.....	28.2
90 cents and under \$1.00.....	40.7
\$1.00 and under \$1.10.....	11.3
\$1.10 and under \$1.20.....	6.4
\$1.20 and over.....	.1
Total.....	100.0
Average rate per hour.....	\$0.906

Over 69 percent of the quotations, covering 63 percent of the union members, provided for increases during the 13-month period from June 1, 1942, to July 1, 1943. Over 30 percent of those who received increases had their rates advanced between 4 and 6 percent. The next largest group fell between 10 and 12 percent (18.4 percent of those receiving raises). More than 45 percent of the total membership reported increases between 4 and 12 percent. Only 7.1 percent of the members benefited by raises of as much as 16 percent. There were no decreases reported in the 13-month period.

TABLE 3.—Number and Extent of Changes in Wage Rates of Union Streetcar and Bus Operators, June 1, 1942, to July 1, 1943, and Percent of Members Affected

Extent of rate changes	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Extent of rate changes	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
No change reported.....	125	37.0	Increases reported—Continued		
Increases reported.....	284	63.0	12 and under 14 percent.....	44	3.3
Under 2 percent.....	2	(¹)	14 and under 16 percent.....	37	6.1
2 and under 4 percent.....	7	.8	16 and under 18 percent.....	14	2.2
4 and under 6 percent.....	60	19.2	18 and under 20 percent.....	11	3.1
6 and under 8 percent.....	25	5.9	20 and under 22 percent.....	8	.8
8 and under 10 percent.....	26	9.0	22 and under 24 percent.....	6	.5
10 and under 12 percent.....	37	11.6	24 percent and over.....	7	.5

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Rates Paid in Each City

The union rates per hour in effect on July 1, 1943, and June 1, 1942, by city, are shown in table 4. Hours are not given, since the hours of work are usually irregular, depending on the "run."

TABLE 4.—Union Wage Rates of Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1943, and June 1, 1942, by Cities

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942		July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942
<i>Atlanta, Ga.</i>			<i>Cincinnati, Ohio</i>		
2-man cars and feeder busses:			2-man cars:		
First 9 months.....	\$0.680	\$0.680	First 3 months.....	\$0.800	\$0.800
10-18 months.....	.730	.730	4-12 months.....	.830	.720
After 18 months.....	.760	.760	After 1 year.....	.850	.750
1-man cars, busses, and trolley coaches:			1-man cars and busses:		
First 9 months.....	.750	.750	First 3 months.....	.870	.750
10-18 months.....	.800	.800	4-12 months.....	.900	.750
After 18 months.....	.830	.830	After 1 year.....	.920	.800
<i>Binghamton, N. Y.¹</i>			<i>Cleveland, Ohio</i>		
Busses:			2-man cars:		
First 3 months.....	.665	.665	First 3 months.....	.890	.840
4-12 months.....	.715	.715	4-12 months.....	.920	.860
After 1 year.....	.745	.745	After 1 year.....	.940	.860
<i>Birmingham, Ala.</i>			Busses:		
2-man cars:			First 3 months.....	.900	.800
First year.....	.685	.685	4-12 months.....	.900	.800
Second year.....	.705	.705	After 1 year.....	1.010	.975
After 2 years.....	.735	.735	<i>Columbus, Ohio</i>		
1-man cars and busses:			1-man cars and busses:		
First year.....	.760	.760	First 3 months.....	.810	.720
Second year.....	.780	.780	4-12 months.....	.840	.750
After 2 years.....	.810	.810	After 1 year.....	.860	.750
<i>Boston, Mass.</i>			<i>Davenport, Iowa</i>		
2-man cars:			(See Rock Island (Ill.) district.)		
First 3 months.....	.650	.580	<i>Dayton, Ohio</i>		
4-12 months.....	.740	.670	1-man cars:		
After 1 year.....	.900	.830	First 6 months.....	.750	.660
1-man cars and busses:			7-12 months.....	.800	.720
First 3 months.....	.750	.680	After 1 year.....	.830	.750
4-12 months.....	.840	.770	Busses:		
After 1 year.....	1.000	.930	First 3 months.....	.830	.720
Rapid transit lines:			4-12 months.....	.840	.740
Motormen.....	.950	.880	After 1 year.....	.860	.750
Guards:			<i>Denver, Colo.</i>		
First 3 months.....	.650	.680	2-man cars:		
4-12 months.....	.740	.670	First 3 months.....	.810	.720
After 1 year.....	.900	.830	4-12 months.....	.820	.720
<i>Butte, Mont.</i>			13-18 months.....	.830	.720
Busses.....	.930	.890	19-24 months.....	.840	.740
<i>Charleston, S. C.</i>			After 2 years.....	.850	.750
Busses:			1-man cars and busses:		
First 3 months.....	.760	.610	First 3 months.....	.800	.700
4-12 months.....	.780	.630	4-12 months.....	.870	.720
After 1 year.....	.800	.650	13-18 months.....	.880	.750
<i>Chicago, Ill.</i>			19-24 months.....	.890	.750
2-man cars:			After 2 years.....	.900	.800
First 3 months.....	.800	.800	<i>Des Moines, Iowa</i>		
4-12 months.....	.920	.920	1-man cars and busses:		
After 1 year.....	.940	.940	First 3 months.....	.735	.660
Night cars.....	.960	.960	4-12 months.....	.755	.660
1-man cars and busses:			After 1 year.....	.810	.700
Day.....	1.020	1.020	<i>Detroit, Mich.</i>		
Night.....	1.040	1.040	2-man cars:		
Elevated railway:			First 6 months.....	.940	.860
Motormen:			7-12 months.....	.900	.860
First 3 months.....	.807	.807	After 1 year.....	1.030	1.000
4-12 months.....	.906	.906	Owl cars.....	1.150	1.100
After 1 year.....	.951	.951	Busses:		
Conductors.....	.906	.906	First 6 months.....	1.030	1.000
Guards, regular.....	.888	.888	7-12 months.....	1.080	1.040
Guards, extra.....	.860	.860	After 1 year.....	1.150	1.100
First 3 months.....	.870	.870	Owl busses.....	1.260	1.200
After 1 year.....	.879	.879			

¹ Plus bonus.

TABLE 4.—Union Wage Rates of Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1943, and June 1, 1942, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942		July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942
Duluth, Minn.			Manchester, N. H.		
Buses:			Buses:		
First year.....	\$0.740	\$0.690	First year.....	\$0.720	\$0.720
Second year.....	.770	.720	Second year.....	.780	.780
Third year.....	.800	.750	After 2 years.....	.830	.830
Erie, Pa.			Memphis, Tenn.		
Buses:			1-man cars and busses:		
First 6 months.....	.800	.800	First year.....	.750	.690
7-12 months.....	.870	.870	Second year.....	.800	.740
After 1 year.....	.900	.900	After 2 years.....	.850	.790
Grand Rapids, Mich.			Milwaukee, Wis.		
Buses:			2-man cars:		
First year.....	.800	.720	First year.....	.810	.700
Indianapolis, Ind.			Second year.....	.830	.720
1-man cars and busses:			After 2 years.....	.850	.760
First year.....	.780	.780	1-man cars and busses:		
Second year.....	.800	.800	First year.....	.800	.750
After 2 years.....	.850	.850	Second year.....	.880	.770
Jackson, Miss.			After 2 years.....	.900	.810
Buses:			Minneapolis, Minn.		
First 6 months.....	.730	.630	(Includes St. Paul, Minn.)		
After 6 months.....	.780	.680	2-man cars:		
Jacksonville, Fla.			First year.....	.710	.710
Buses:			Second year.....	.740	.740
First year.....	.760	.650	After 2 years.....	.770	.770
Second year.....	.780	.670	1-man cars and busses:		
After 2 years.....	.810	.700	First year.....	.800	.800
Little Rock, Ark.			Second year.....	.830	.830
1-man cars and busses:			After 2 years.....	.870	.870
First 6 months.....	.600	.550	Mobile, Ala.		
7-12 months.....	.630	.580	Buses:		
Second year.....	.670	.620	First 6 months.....	.750	.600
After 2 years.....	.750	.700	After 6 months.....	.800	.650
Los Angeles, Calif.			Moline, Ill.		
Los Angeles Railway Co.:			(See Rock Island (Ill.) district).		
1-man cars:			Nashville, Tenn.		
First 6 months.....	.810	-----	Buses:		
After 6 months.....	.830	-----	First 3 months.....	.640	.580
1-man cars and busses:			4-12 months.....	.680	.620
First 6 months.....	.910	-----	13-18 months.....	.700	.640
After 6 months.....	.950	-----	19-24 months.....	.740	.670
Pacific Electric Co.:			After 2 years.....	.770	.700
2-man cars:			Newark, N. J.		
First 6 months.....	.730	.730	1-man cars and busses:		
7-12 months.....	.750	.750	First 3 months.....	.810	.810
After 1 year.....	.770	.770	4-12 months.....	.830	.830
1-man cars and busses:			After 1 year.....	.850	.850
First 6 months.....	.830	.830	Ironbound Transportation Co.:		
7-12 months.....	.850	.850	Buses:		
After 1 year.....	.870	.870	First 6 months.....	.600	.500
Single-track cars:			7-18 months.....	.650	.550
First 6 months.....	.780	.780	19 months to 5 years.....	.700	.600
7-12 months.....	.800	.800	After 5 years.....	.730	.630
After 1 year.....	.820	.820	New Haven, Conn.		
Louisville, Ky.			1-man cars and busses:		
Buses:			First 3 months.....	.800	.800
First year.....	.660	.580	4-12 months.....	.830	.830
Car.....	.650	.570	After 1 year.....	.870	.870
Madison, Wis.			New Orleans, La.		
Buses:			2-man cars:		
First 6 months.....	.680	.680	First 9 months.....	.690	.640
7-12 months.....	.710	.710	10-18 months.....	.720	.660
13-18 months.....	.730	.730	After 18 months.....	.750	.700
After 18 months.....	.750	.750			

TABLE 4.—Union Wage Rates of Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1943, and June 1, 1942, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942		July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942
New Orleans, La.—Continued			New York, N. Y.—Continued		
Buses:			Buses:		
First 9 months.....	\$0.740	\$0.690	Avenue B and East Broadway Transit Co.:		
10-18 months.....	.770	.710	First 6 months.....	\$0.600	\$0.550
After 18 months.....	.800	.750	7-24 months.....	.710	.660
Algiers Division:			Third year.....	.740	.700
First 6 months.....	.550	.480	Fourth year.....	.810	.760
7-12 months.....	.560	.490	After 4 years.....	.800	.750
13-18 months.....	.570	.500	Bee Lines, Inc.:		
19-24 months.....	.580	.510	First year.....	.600	.550
25-30 months.....	.590	.520	Second year.....	.640	.590
After 30 months.....	.600	.530	Third year.....	.680	.630
			Fourth year.....	.720	.670
			After 4 years.....	.800	.750
New York, N. Y.			Brooklyn Bus Division:		
Subways:			First year.....	.730	.680
B. M. T. System:			Second year.....	.800	.750
Road motormen:			Third year.....	.850	.790
First year.....	1.000	.960	Fourth year.....	.900	.850
Second year.....	1.050	1.000	After 4 years.....	.900	.850
After 2 years.....	1.100	1.060	Comprehensive & East Side Omnibus Corporation:		
Yard motormen:			First 3 months.....	.690	.640
First 285 days.....	.950	.850	4-12 months.....	.720	.670
After 285 days.....	.950	.880	Second year.....	.800	.750
Conductors:			Third year.....	.835	.780
First position:			Fourth year.....	.870	.820
First 285 days.....	.800	.730	After 4 years.....	.940	.890
After 285 days.....	.850	.780	Fifth Avenue Coach Co.:		
Second position.....	.750	.700	Drivers:		
I. R. T. System:			First year.....	.850	.800
Road motormen:			Second year.....	.800	.750
First year.....	1.000	.960	Third year.....	.890	.840
Second year.....	1.050	1.000	Fourth year.....	.900	.850
After 2 years.....	1.100	1.060	After 4 years.....	.910	.860
Yard motormen:			Conductors:		
First year.....	.950	.850	First year.....	.780	.730
After 1 year.....	1.000	.880	Second year.....	.790	.740
Conductors:			Third year.....	.820	.770
First position:			Fourth year.....	.830	.780
First year.....	.800	.730	After 4 years.....	.940	.890
After 1 year.....	.850	.780	Green Lines:		
Second position.....	.750	.700	First 6 months.....	.630	.580
Platform:			7-12 months.....	.700	.650
First year.....	.700	.650	Second year.....	.730	.680
Second year.....	.730	.680	Third year.....	.800	.750
Surface cars:			After 3 years.....	.875	.820
Third Avenue Railway System:			Jamaica Busses, Inc.:		
First 3 months.....	.600	.520	First year.....	.765	.710
4-6 months.....	.620	.540	Second year.....	.730	.680
7-9 months.....	.640	.560	Third year.....	.771	.720
10-12 months.....	.670	.590	Fourth year.....	.815	.760
13-15 months.....	.690	.610	After 4 years.....	.870	.820
16-18 months.....	.710	.630	Manhattan and Queens Line:		
19-21 months.....	.730	.650	First 6 months.....	.630	.580
22-24 months.....	.750	.670	7-12 months.....	.660	.610
Third year.....	.800	.760	Second year.....	.700	.650
Fourth year.....	.810	.770	Third year.....	.730	.680
Fifth year.....	.820	.780	After 3 years.....	.830	.780
Sixth year.....	.880	.820	New York City Omnibus Co.:		
Brooklyn-Queens Transit Lines:			First 6 months.....	.710	.660
First year.....	.750	.640	7-12 months.....	.800	.750
Second year.....	.800	.680	Second year.....	.860	.810
Third year.....	.850	.720	Third year.....	.920	.870
Fourth year.....	.900	.760	Fourth year.....	.940	.900
Fifth year.....	.950	.800	After 4 years.....	1.000	1.000
After 5 years.....	.950	.860	North Shore Bus Lines:		
Queensboro Bridge Railway and Steinway Omnibus Co.	.880	.840	First year.....	.710	.650
			Second year.....	.760	.710
			Third year.....	.830	.780
			After 3 years.....	.910	.860

TABLE 4.—Union Wage Rates of Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1943, and June 1, 1942, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942		July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942
New York, N. Y.—Continued			Peoria, Ill.		
Bus—Continued.			1-man cars and busses:		
Queens - Nassau Transit Lines:			First year.....	\$0.700	\$0.790
First year.....	\$0.688	\$0.688	Second year.....	.810	.810
Second year.....	.730	.730	After 2 years.....	.830	.830
Third year.....	.810	.810			
After 3 years.....	.900	.900	Philadelphia, Pa.		
Schenck Transportation Co.:			Subway, elevated, and high-speed lines:		
1-12 months.....	.710	.650	Motormen:		
13-30 months.....	.820	.680	First 6 months.....	.850	.810
After 30 months.....	.920	.770	7-12 months.....	.875	.835
Boston Island Coach Co.:			13-18 months.....	.900	.860
First 3 months.....	.730	.705	19-24 months.....	.925	.885
4-6 months.....	.755	.730	After 2 years.....	.950	.910
7-9 months.....	.780	.755	Conductors:		
10-12 months.....	.805	.780	First 6 months.....	.770	.730
13-18 months.....	.830	.805	7-12 months.....	.795	.755
19-24 months.....	.865	.840	13-18 months.....	.820	.780
After 2 years.....	.900	.875	19-24 months.....	.845	.805
Stewart Omnibus and Queensboro Bridge Rail- way:			After 2 years.....	.870	.830
First 3 months.....	.600	.560	2-man cars:		
4-6 months.....	.620	.580	First 6 months.....	.770	.730
7-9 months.....	.640	.600	7-12 months.....	.795	.755
10-12 months.....	.670	.630	13-18 months.....	.820	.780
13-15 months.....	.690	.650	19-24 months.....	.845	.805
16-18 months.....	.710	.670	After 2 years.....	.870	.830
19-21 months.....	.730	.690	1-man cars and busses:		
22-24 months.....	.760	.720	First 6 months.....	.850	.810
Third year.....	.800	.760	7-12 months.....	.875	.835
Fourth year.....	.810	.770	13-18 months.....	.900	.860
Fifth year.....	.820	.780	19-24 months.....	.925	.885
After 5 years.....	.900	.860	After 2 years.....	.950	.910
Third Avenue Railway System:			Phoenix, Ariz.		
First 3 months.....	.600	.520	1-man cars and busses:		
4-6 months.....	.620	.540	First 6 months.....	.850
7-9 months.....	.640	.560	7-12 months.....	.950
10-12 months.....	.670	.590	13-18 months.....	1.000
13-15 months.....	.690	.610	After 18 months.....	1.050
16-18 months.....	.710	.630			
19-21 months.....	.730	.650	Pittsburgh, Pa.		
22-24 months.....	.760	.670	1-man cars:		
Third year.....	.800	.760	First 3 months.....	.955	.955
Fourth year.....	.810	.790	4-12 months.....	1.045	1.045
Fifth year.....	.820	.810	After 1 year.....	1.100	1.100
After 5 years.....	.900	.890	Busses:		
Tri-Boro Coach Corp.:			First 3 months.....	.835	.835
First year.....	.680	.600	4-12 months.....	.945	.945
Second year.....	.736	.650	After 1 year.....	.985	.985
Third year.....	.793	.700			
Fourth year.....	.838	.740	Portland, Maine		
Fifth year.....	.900	.830	Busses:		
			First year.....	.870	.800
Oklahoma City, Okla.			After 1 year.....	.900	.800
1-man cars and busses:			Portland, Oreg.		
First 6 months.....	.630	.570	1-man cars and busses:		
7-12 months.....	.660	.600	If employed prior to April 1, 1942.....	1.000	1.000
13-24 months.....	.700	.630	If employed after April 1, 1942:		
After 2 years.....	.760	.660	First 6 months.....	.900	.900
Interurban.....	.780	.680	7-12 months.....	.920	.920
			After 1 year.....	.940	.940
Omaha, Neb.			Interurban one-man cars.....	.920	.920
1-man cars:					
First 6 months.....	.641	.610	Providence, R. I.		
7-12 months.....	.661	.630	1-man cars and busses:		
After 1 year.....	.684	.650	First 3 months.....	.920	.800
Bus:			4-12 months.....	.950	.830
First 6 months.....	.663	.660	After 1 year.....	.970	.850
7-12 months.....	.714	.680			
After 1 year.....	.735	.700			

TABLE 4.—Union Wage Rates of Streetcar and Bus Operators, July 1, 1943, and June 1, 1942, by Cities—Continued

City and classification	Rates of wages per hour		City and classification	Rates of wages per hour	
	July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942		July 1, 1943	June 1, 1942
<i>Reading, Pa.</i>			<i>San Francisco, Calif.—Continued</i>		
2-man cars.....	\$0.700	\$0.700	Buses:		
1-man cars and busses.....	.800	.800	First 6 months.....	\$0.800	\$0.720
<i>Richmond, Va.</i>			7-12 months.....	.825	.775
1-man cars and busses:			13-18 months.....	.840	.800
First 3 months.....	.700	19-30 months.....	.875	.825
4-12 months.....	.750	After 30 months.....	.900	.850
After 1 year.....	.800	Municipal Railway:		
<i>Rochester, N. Y.</i>			Motormen and conductors.....	.875	.750
2-man subway cars.....	.870	.870	Bus operators.....	.875	.825
Buses:			<i>Seranton, Pa.</i>		
First 3 months.....	.860	.880	1-man cars and busses:		
4-12 months.....	.880	.880	First 3 months.....	.720	.700
After 1 year.....	.900	.900	4-12 months.....	.770	.750
<i>Rock Island (Ill.) District 1</i>			After 1 year.....	.800	.750
Buses:			<i>Seattle, Wash.</i>		
First 6 months.....	.790	.710	Buses:		
7-12 months.....	.810	.730	First 6 months.....	1.000	.900
After 1 year.....	.830	.750	After 6 months.....	1.030	1.000
<i>St. Louis, Mo.</i>			<i>South Bend, Ind.</i>		
2-man cars:			Buses:		
First 6 months.....	.730	.560	First year.....	.820	.720
7-12 months.....	.780	.620	Second year.....	.875	.775
13-18 months.....	.830	.680	After 2 years.....	.900	.800
After 18 months.....	.880	.730	<i>Spokane, Wash.</i>		
1-man cars and busses:			Buses:		
First 6 months.....	.800	.630	First 6 months.....	.800
7-12 months.....	.850	.690	7-12 months.....	.850
13-18 months.....	.900	.750	After 1 year.....	.900
After 18 months.....	.950	.800	<i>Springfield, Mass.</i>		
Service cars:			Buses:		
Willet Motor Coach Co.:			First 3 months.....	.870	.730
First 6 months.....	.725	.550	4-12 months.....	.925	.800
7-12 months.....	.750	.575	After 1 year.....	.970	.870
2-3 years.....	.775	.600	<i>Tampa, Fla.</i>		
After 3 years.....	.800	.625	Buses:		
<i>St. Louis County Bus Co., Inc.</i>			First 6 months.....	.400	.400
First 6 months.....	.675	.550	After 6 months.....	.540	.400
7-12 months.....	.700	.575	<i>Toledo, Ohio</i>		
2-3 years.....	.725	.600	1-man cars and busses:		
After 3 years.....	.750	.625	First 6 months.....	.700	.700
<i>St. Paul, Minn.</i>			7-12 months.....	.810	.810
(See Minneapolis, Minn.)			After 1 year.....	.840	.840
<i>Salt Lake City, Utah</i>			<i>Washington, D. C.</i>		
1-man cars and busses:			2-man cars:		
First year.....	.790	.690	First 3 months.....	.775	.600
After 1 year.....	.870	.770	4-12 months.....	.810	.700
<i>San Antonio, Tex.</i>			After 1 year.....	.850	.750
Buses.....	.860	.790	1-man cars and busses:		
<i>San Francisco, Calif.</i>			First 3 months.....	.870	.750
2-man cars:			4-12 months.....	.910	.800
First 6 months.....	.730	.650	After 1 year.....	.930	.850
7-12 months.....	.755	.675	<i>Worcester, Mass.</i>		
13-18 months.....	.780	.700	1-man cars and busses:		
19-30 months.....	.805	.725	First 3 months.....	.875	.775
After 30 months.....	.830	.750	4-12 months.....	.920	.825
Cable cars:			After 1 year.....	.970	.875
Gripmen and conductors:			<i>York, Pa.</i>		
First 6 months.....	.800	Buses:		
7-12 months.....	.835	First 6 months.....	.730	.600
13-18 months.....	.860	7-12 months.....	.760	.650
After 18 months.....	.875	.750	After 1 year.....	.800	.720
			<i>Youngstown, Ohio</i>		
			Buses:		
			First year.....	.830	.550
			After 1 year.....	.890	.600

* Includes Davenport, Iowa, Moline and Rock Island, Ill.

Union Rates in the Building Trades: Correction

ON page 175 of the Monthly Labor Review for January 1944, average hourly rates were shown in table 6 for union building-trades workers, by cities. As a result of a printing error, the rates of journeymen in cities coming under population groups IV and V are not in line with the cities to which they apply. The correct rate for each city is the rate appearing on the next line above the city.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to November 1943

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to November 1943.¹ The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged \$45.27 in November 1943—95.2 percent above the average in January 1939, 69.9 percent above January 1941, and 16.4 percent above October 1942. Such factors as longer hours of work, merit increases for individual workers, premium pay for overtime worked, changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in earnings.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 99.5 cents in November 1943—57.4 percent above the average in January 1939, 45.7 percent above January 1941, and 11.4 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. The effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in November 1943 was 92.2 cents per hour; this was 48.0 percent higher than in January 1939, 38.9 percent above January 1941, and 9.9 percent above October 1942.

The shift of workers from relatively low-wage to relatively high-wage industries since 1939 would have raised the average earnings of factory workers, even if no other influences had been present. The effects of such interindustry shifts have been eliminated from the averages shown in columns 10 to 12 of the table. If employment had been distributed between industries as it was in January 1939, the straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers would have averaged 84.0 cents in November 1943, or 34.8 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 29.6 percent above January 1941, and 7.4 percent above October 1942. Between October and November 1943 the rise in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to four-tenths of 1 percent.

¹ Compare "Trends in Factory Wages 1939-43," Monthly Labor Review, November 1943, pp. 800-884, especially table 4, p. 879. For detailed data regarding weekly earnings see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, November 1943, table 6, p. 450, of this issue.

Even this latter series of averages exaggerates the rise in wage rates, because it includes the influence of interplant shifts of employment, merit increases for individual workers, and premium rates for work on extra shifts and on holidays.

Earnings of Factory Workers, Selected Months, 1939 to November 1943

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings ¹			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings weighted by January 1939 employment ²		
	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Non-durable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
1939: Jan.....	\$23.19	\$25.33	\$21.57	\$0.632	\$0.696	\$0.583	\$0.623	\$0.688	\$0.574	\$0.623	\$0.688	\$0.574
1940: Jan.....	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.644	.703	.589	.635	.697	.580
1941: Jan.....	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601	.648	.711	.590
July.....	29.62	33.90	25.16	.735	.815	.645	.708	.780	.630	.689	.771	.628
1942: Jan.....	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.762	.885	.670	.729	.810	.667
July.....	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.806	.885	.701	.759	.846	.694
Oct.....	38.89	45.31	30.66	.893	.960	.751	.839	.919	.723	.782	.869	.718
1943: Jan.....	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.859	.941	.753	.794	.886	.728
Apr.....	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.878	.957	.781	.808	.897	.741
July.....	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.899	.981	.766	.823	.919	.759
Aug.....	43.52	49.61	34.55	.965	1.060	.811	.897	.976	.769	.822	.911	.759
Sept. ³	44.39	51.01	34.73	.993	1.097	.823	.925	1.012	.783	.843	.942	.787
Oct.....	44.90	51.42	35.18	.989	1.087	.824	.916	.997	.781	.836	.929	.785
Nov. ⁴	45.27	51.68	35.65	.995	1.095	.829	.922	1.005	.784	.840	.934	.790

¹ Average hourly earnings, excluding the effect of premium pay for overtime.

² Average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime, weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of the manufacturing industry for January 1939.

³ Because of the influence of premium pay for work done on Labor Day, the September figures are not strictly comparable with those shown for other months.

⁴ Preliminary.

Earnings of Factory Office Workers in New York State, October 1943¹

WEEKLY earnings of clerical and other nonsupervisory factory office workers in New York State averaged \$43.82 in October 1943. This figure is based on reports received by the New York Department of Labor from 2,612 firms having over 79,000 office employees. There was considerable variation in the make-up of the office staffs, which limits comparison of earnings on an industry basis. However, averages were found to be higher in industries composed mostly of large plants where highly skilled office workers were needed, and in war industries operating on a comparatively long workweek.

Table 1 shows average weekly earnings of office workers in representative factories of New York State and New York City in October 1943, together with the number of employees covered, by industry groups. The employees included clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, timekeepers, and employees performing technical and professional duties under supervision. Managers, superintendents, other supervisory employees, and responsible professional and technical employees were excluded.

¹ New York. Department of Labor. Industrial Bulletin (Albany), November 1943, p. 411: Office workers' earnings.

TABLE 1.—Average Weekly Earnings and Number of Office Workers in Representative Factories in New York State, October 1943

Industry	Total State		New York City		Remainder of State	
	Number of workers	Weekly earnings	Number of workers	Weekly earnings	Number of workers	Weekly earnings
Total ¹	79,152	\$43.82	24,087	\$40.57	55,065	\$45.37
Food, tobacco products	2,814	35.39	1,779	36.51	1,035	33.47
Textile-mill products	1,645	30.73	304	32.82	1,341	30.26
Apparel, etc.	3,193	32.53	2,287	33.88	906	29.15
Furniture, lumber products	1,296	36.97	349	42.33	947	34.99
Paper, etc.	1,452	35.83	468	32.16	984	37.57
Printing, etc.	5,026	39.10	3,766	40.49	1,260	34.95
Chemicals, petroleum products	1,751	35.72	858	33.62	893	37.74
Rubber products	590	39.72	192	33.38	398	42.09
Leather products	1,530	28.23	315	32.23	1,215	27.20
Stone, clay, and glass	786	37.01	74	34.16	712	37.31
Metals and machinery	43,488	48.09	5,779	43.69	37,709	48.77
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	15,579	45.95	7,916	46.70	7,663	42.09

¹ Weighted averages.

Men employed in factory offices had average earnings of \$57.83 in October 1943. The average for women was only \$32.27, but this represented an increase of 10.6 percent from October 1942. Some of this increase, the New York Department of Labor states, was due to a shift of workers from consumer-goods industries, in which earnings were relatively low, to war industries with high average earnings. The data for men obtained in the 1942 and 1943 surveys are not comparable, as the 1942 survey included supervisory employees who were excluded from the 1943 investigation.

Average weekly earnings of men in October 1943 and of women in October of 1942 and 1943 in New York State and New York City are given in table 2, by industry groups.

TABLE 2.—Average Weekly Earnings of Male and Female Office Workers in Representative Factories in New York State, October 1943

Industry	Total State			New York City			Remainder of State		
	Men		Women	Men		Women	Men		Women
	October 1943	October 1943	October 1942	October 1943	October 1943	October 1942	October 1943	October 1943	October 1942
Total ¹	\$57.83	\$32.27	\$29.18	\$56.07	\$31.69	\$28.37	\$58.45	\$32.61	\$29.81
Food, tobacco products	48.07	28.97	26.65	48.97	29.45	27.65	46.17	28.21	25.22
Textile-mill products	44.50	26.28	24.96	41.23	28.50	26.23	45.63	25.85	24.78
Apparel, etc.	54.32	28.88	25.81	56.91	29.67	25.97	45.71	26.97	25.38
Furniture, lumber products	54.80	28.03	24.86	59.62	29.89	27.19	52.07	27.45	24.24
Paper, etc.	51.07	27.99	26.17	(²)	29.20	27.18	52.76	27.21	25.55
Printing, etc.	49.33	29.79	27.84	50.10	30.72	29.11	46.37	27.51	24.91
Chemicals, petroleum products	47.61	30.90	27.98	42.50	30.13	26.73	52.32	31.66	29.88
Rubber products	59.49	29.73	27.89	(²)	(²)	(²)	61.48	32.62	29.24
Leather products	43.40	25.71	22.62	(²)	29.05	24.79	41.14	24.84	21.31
Stone, clay, and glass	49.08	30.34	27.70	(²)	(²)	(²)	49.83	30.61	27.82
Metals and machinery	60.37	33.98	32.54	61.44	32.50	29.09	60.25	34.29	33.40
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	57.24	37.14	32.56	62.03	38.65	34.89	51.39	35.86	29.31

¹ Weighted averages.² Representation too small to be significant.

Wage Subsidies in Australia¹

A POLICY of Government subsidies to compensate Australian employers for wage increases necessitated by rises in the cost of living was announced by the Australian Prime Minister on July 20, 1943. Earlier regulations provide that, when the cost-of-living index rises, wages increase automatically under arbitral awards. Price ceilings, stabilizing prices at the April 12, 1943, level, prevent affected employers from passing on the increased wages in the form of higher prices. The cost of living rose between March 1943 and June 1943, and, as a result, wages increased by one or two shillings a week. The cost of reimbursing employers (with the exception of Government and semi-Government bodies) is estimated at approximately £250,000 per month.

The need for wage subsidies is expected to be only temporary. New measures to reduce the cost of living were presented in the July announcement. Prices of tea, potatoes, clothing, and textiles have gone down, and increased supplies of essential vegetables and clothing are promised.



Wage Increases in Ecuador, 1943²

PUBLIC and private workers in Ecuador receiving 500 sucres³ or less per month, or 20 sucres or less per day, received wage increases ranging from 5 to 50 percent by Executive decrees of August 13 and September 30, effective October 1, 1943.⁴ The decrees also provided that no industrial worker in the Republic should be paid less than 4 sucres daily. Job and piece workers are to receive a 25-percent increase, regardless of the time spent on the work. The sliding scale of the increases is shown below.

Wages up to—	Percent of increase
100 sucres per month (or 4 sucres per day).....	50
125 sucres per month (or 5 sucres per day).....	45
150 sucres per month (or 6 sucres per day).....	40
200 sucres per month (or 8 sucres per day).....	35
250 sucres per month (or 10 sucres per day).....	30
300 sucres per month (or 12 sucres per day).....	25
350 sucres per month (or 14 sucres per day).....	20
400 sucres per month (or 16 sucres per day).....	15
450 sucres per month (or 18 sucres per day).....	10
500 sucres per month (or 20 sucres per day).....	5

Employers and firms providing workers with food or living quarters or other services are to continue the practice without prejudice to the payment of the wage increase, and those which had previously increased wages or had paid bonuses or extra wages must also meet the increase.

¹ Data are from International Labor Review, December 1943 (p. 779).

² Data are from Trabajo, Anexo No. 3, a la Memoria del Ministro de Previsión Social de Ecuador (Quito), 1940, pp. 71-80; Documentos Anexos al Informe que el Ministro de Previsión Social y Trabajo Presenta a la Nación (Quito, Ministerio de Previsión Social y Trabajo), 1941, pp. 86-103; Previsión Social, Ministerio de Previsión Social y Trabajo, mayo a diciembre de 1942, pp. 134-141, 143-144; Registro Oficial (Quito), 26 de octubre de 1939, pp. 1330-1331; International Labor Office (Montreal), Legislative Series, 1938, Ecuador I; and reports of Cyril L. Thiel, United States consul at Guayaquil, September 3, 1943, and of Howard H. Tewksbury, commercial attaché, United States Embassy, Quito, September 10 and October 20, 1943.

³ Average exchange rate of sucre in September 1943=7 cents.

⁴ On January 24, 1942, the Government of Ecuador issued decree No. 96 increasing the wage scale of workers in private establishments by from 10 to 25 percent, effective February 1, 1942; the only minimum wage specified was that agricultural laborers in the Sierra should receive not less than 1 sucre per day, and in the coastal region, not less than 2 sucres per day.

required by the new decree. Workers in positions created after January 1, 1943, must be paid the same remuneration as others in the same classification within the same company or public office. Municipalities of the Republic are authorized to pay up to 40 percent of their income in wages and salaries, and institutions created under public law may modify their budgets in order to meet the new salary requirements.

Minimum-Wage Orders

The minimum-wage commissions were directed to convene during October 1943 and "as far as possible" work out a "unified salary for the different branches of work." These commissions were provided for in the labor code of August 5, 1938, which established, for each industry, minimum-wage commissions consisting of 3 Government representatives and 1 representative each for employers and workers. These commissions were directed to revise wage scales every 2 years, or oftener if circumstances require. Wages in force when the labor code became effective were to continue in force until revised in accordance with its provisions. If for any reason the minimum-wage commissions failed to perform their duties, minimum salaries and wages were to be fixed by the Ministry of Social Welfare and Labor. In most cases the latter procedure has been followed.

At least 14 minimum-wage scales have been issued, 2 of which—those in textile and shoe-manufacturing industries—applied to the entire Republic; each of the others to one specific industry in one city, either Quito or Guayaquil. The accompanying table shows the industries for which minimum-wage orders have been issued, the date of issuance, and the territory in which the wage scale is effective.

Minimum Wage Orders Issued in Ecuador, 1939-42

Industry	Date of issuance of order	Territory in which wage scale is effective
Textiles	Oct. 19, 1939	Entire Republic.
Shoes	Dec. 7, 1939	Do.
Tailoring	June 13, 1940	Quito.
Charcutiers	Aug. 5, 1940	Do.
Domestic help in hotels and restaurants	do	Do.
Domestic help in educational and religious institutions	Nov. 25, 1940	Do.
Domestic help in educational and religious institutions	Mar. 17, 1941	Do.
Personnel in theaters, etc.	do	Guayaquil.
Printing and publishing	Mar. 20, 1941	Do.
Bakeries	May 26, 1941	Do.
Street railways	May 28, 1941	Do.
Transport workers, ocean and river	Oct. 23, 1941	Do.
Camp	May 8, 1942	Quito.
Leaders of provisions	July 6, 1942	Guayaquil.



Trend of Earnings in Germany, 1929-42¹

THE change in German business conditions which occurred in the autumn of 1929 was not reflected in hourly wage rates, established by collective agreement, until December 1930, when they began to fall noticeably. In 1931, the average wage rates for the whole country

¹ Data are from International Labor Review (Montreal), December 1943, pp. 714-32: Wage Trends in Germany from 1929 to 1942, by René Livchen.

dropped 17 percent; the decline in 1932 was 4.5 percent. After the decline in rates ceased, the Nazi Government froze wages at the April 1933 level, when wage rates were at their lowest. No increases were allowed until 1937, and then the rise was only gradual.

Trend of Hourly Earnings

Hourly earnings in Germany reached their peak in 1929, after which they declined until 1933, when they began a rise so gradual that only by 1941 was the 1931 level attained. Table 1 shows hourly earnings and indexes, on the basis of (1) workers' average actual earnings, furnished monthly by employers, and (2) averages derived from special quarterly reports, by employers, of their total wage bill, their average number of workers, and the total man-hours worked.

Among the reasons for the decline in hourly earnings after 1929 were the abolition of overtime, the decrease in employment opportunities and in normal hours of work, the abolition of all rates higher than agreement rates, and the discontinuance of output and other bonuses. In 1933, the total decline in earnings amounted to 27 percent, as compared with a drop of 21 percent in wage rates. The wood and building industries suffered the greatest decline in hourly wage rates, the consumer-goods industries the least.

TABLE 1.—Average Hourly Earnings in Specified German Industries, 1929-41¹

Year	Mines and industry (monthly reports) ²		Mines, industry, and transportation (special quarterly reports) ³	
	Amount (in reichspfennigs)	Index (1936=100)	Amount (in reichspfennigs) ⁴	Index (1936=100)
1929			94.9	128.5
1930			92.2	123.0
1931			85.2	113.3
1932			71.5	97.6
1933			60.3	84.6
1934	68.7	95.1	71.1	97.0
1935	70.8	98.1	72.1	98.4
1936	72.2	100.0	73.3	100.0
1937	73.7	102.1	74.8	102.1
1938	75.9	105.1	77.4	106.6
1939	* 77.8	* 107.8	79.6	109.6
1940	80.3	111.2	81.5	111.2
1941			* 85.3	* 116.4

¹ Data are from *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, 1942 (p. 355). To facilitate comparison, all the original indexes were converted to the base 1936=100.

² Averages based upon employers' monthly reports of workers' actual hourly earnings.

³ Averages based upon employers' quarterly (March, June, September, and December) reports of total wage bill, average number of employees, and total man-hours worked.

⁴ Calculated on the basis of the absolute amount of earnings for 1936.

* Including Austria and the Sudetenland.

* Based upon March, September, and December only.

After 1934 (when hourly earnings based upon monthly reports from employers became available for the first time) a steady rise in hourly earnings occurred, being particularly marked in the mining, engineering, and metallurgical industries. On the other hand, hourly earnings in the food, rubber, leather, and paper industries were below the average. In 1937, primarily as a result of the increased needs of the Army, the construction of motor highways, and expansion of

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the heavy industries, a decided rise in average earnings was shown in mining, the rubber industry, and the stone and earth industry; an additional factor was the increased productivity of the individual worker, reflected in higher piece-work earnings and in output bonuses.

Although hourly earnings rose only slightly during the early years of the Nazi regime, the greatly increased economic activity after 1936 resulted in increased individual earnings, primarily because of a lengthening of the working time. In certain industries suffering from a shortage of skilled labor, the increase in hourly earnings was due to increases of hourly rates. In the spring of 1937 average hourly earnings had risen between 6 and 7 percent, and at the end of 1938 13 percent, over the minimum of 1933. A further 5-percent increase in hourly earnings occurred between the summer of 1938 and the summer of 1939.

At the outbreak of the war in September 1939, the rise in earnings came to a stop with the War Economy Order of September 4, 1939, abolishing extra payments for overtime, night work, and work on holidays and Sundays. Two months later the extra payments were restored, causing a new rise in earnings without, however, reaching the level of June 1939. Throughout 1940 and 1941 the rising trend of hourly earnings continued. Earnings began to decline in March 1942, however, partly as a result of efforts of the labor trustees. In general, there was a greater decrease in the earnings of unskilled workers, caused primarily by the influx of foreign workers.

Trend of Weekly Earnings

Weekly earnings reached their peak in 1929 and were at their lowest in 1932. In the case of weekly earnings, statistics are available based not only on employers' monthly and quarterly reports but also on invalidity and old-age insurance data. In table 2 weekly earnings from 1929 to 1941 are given, on the basis of these three sources. It is probable that the low earnings reported under the social-security system may be due to the inclusion of agriculture.

TABLE 2.—Average Weekly Earnings in Specified German Industries, 1929-41¹

Year	Mines and industry (employers' monthly reports) ²		Mines, industry, and transportation (employers' quarterly reports) ²		Agriculture, mines, industry, transportation, commerce, etc. (invalidity and old-age insurance data—annual averages)	
	Amount (in reichsmarks)	Index (1936=100)	Amount (in reichsmarks) ³	Index (1936=100)	Amount (in reichsmarks)	Index (1936=100)
1929			44.00	128.2	31.10	123.5
1930			40.61	118.1	30.57	121.1
1931			35.73	103.9	27.73	109.8
1932			29.51	85.8	22.88	90.6
1933			30.16	87.7	21.88	86.7
1934	30.50	92.0	32.36	94.1	22.83	90.4
1935	31.81	96.6	33.15	96.4	24.04	95.2
1936	33.17	100.0	34.39	100.0	25.25	100.0
1937	34.46	103.9	35.59	103.5	26.50	105.0
1938	36.03	108.6	37.31	108.5	27.82	110.2
1939	36.51	110.1	38.72	112.6	29.27	115.9
1940	37.67	113.6	39.89	116.0	29.82	118.1
1941			42.51	123.6	31.14	123.3

¹ Data are from *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, 1942 (p. 355).

² For explanation see footnotes 2 and 3, to table 1.

³ Calculated on the basis of the absolute amount of earnings for 1936.

⁴ Including Austria and the Sudetenland.

⁵ Based upon March, September, and December only.

Weekly earnings in the spring of 1937 showed an increase of 15 percent over the low in 1932, whereas employment rose 43 percent and hours worked, 11 percent. Earnings had increased 30 percent at the end of 1938 and nearly 40 percent by the summer of 1939.

From September 1940 to September 1941 there was a steady upward trend in weekly earnings, followed by decreases in December 1941 and March 1942. More frequent changes occurred in the following months. Among the factors contributing to these changes were the drafting of workers into military service, various types of compulsory civilian service, the recruiting of substitute labor, and the shifting of workers to more essential employment. The effects of these factors upon earnings varied considerably. Since September 1940 weekly earnings in the consumer-goods industries had been higher than in the capital-goods industries. This was due to the transfer of lower-paid workers to other employment and to the concentration of orders among a smaller number of workers. In addition, in the textile, clothing, and food industries, orders for supplies for the armed forces contributed to the trend of rising earnings.

In the case of women workers, the increase in earnings was less than that for male workers. This was especially true for unskilled women, many of whom worked only part time. The weekly earnings of skilled and semiskilled workers increased more rapidly than those of the unskilled. In general, output increased under the piece-work system, and the fact that more overtime was worked led to a proportionately greater increase in weekly earnings than in hourly earnings.



Employment and Wages in Nicaragua, 1943¹

THE Nicaraguan Bureau of Statistics reported in October 1943 that about 15,000 workers were employed in 118 establishments of widely varying type, for which information was available, in addition to 3,940 persons in Managua employed by the Federal Government.

Little information was given regarding the average earnings. However, for mine workers wages averaged 4.72 paper córdobas² per day, and for workers in coffee-cleaning plants 2.04 paper córdobas. The Government employees had average earnings amounting to 227 paper córdobas per month—or about 10 times the estimated per capita income for the entire country.

The number and type of commercial and industrial establishments with 10 or more employees and the total number of workers employed in October 1943, are shown in the table on page 405.

In addition to the employment there shown, it was known that 4 or 5 gold mines had sawmills, machine shops, foundries or blacksmith shops, slaughter houses, ice plants, shingle mills, rice hullers, grist mills, etc., and that there were within the country other ice plants, a cement-pipe factory, a turpentine plant, furniture factories, a mattress factory, a cotton gin, a button factory, brick kilns, hammock factories, basket factories, grain elevator, cement factory, match factory, etc.

As a result of the virtual completion of the Nicaraguan portion of the Pan American Highway at the end of October, approximately

¹ Data are from report of Jule B. Smith, second secretary of the United States Embassy at Managua, November 23, 1943.

² Average exchange rate of córdoba in October 1943—20 cents.

200 citizens of the United States left during the first half of November. Some 700 or 800 Nicaraguans also lost their jobs. About 600 Nicaraguan workers were discharged at the end of the month when work was completed on the large airfield of Las Mercedes near Managua, but many of these are reported to have obtained work elsewhere, or to have returned to the farming regions. It was believed that there was some unemployment at the end of the month, although there is generally a shortage of skilled laborers in Nicaragua.

Number of Workers in Commerce and Industry in Nicaragua, October 1943

Type of establishment	Number of establishments	Number of employees	Type of establishment	Number of establishments	Number of employees
All types.....	118	14,876	Cigarette factories.....	1	69
Mills.....	10	5,743	Soap factories.....	3	59
Coffee-cleaning plants.....	18	4,112	Yarn and cloth mills.....	1	45
Sugar mills.....	25	14,000	Alcohol-beverage plants.....	4	43
Brown-sugar mills.....	28	351	Sawmills.....	3	39
Shoe factories.....	10	158	Rice hullers.....	2	23
Electric-light plants.....	5	87	Soda-water plants.....	3	22
Tobacco shops.....	3	87	Cement-brick factories.....	1	17
			Bathroom-tile factories.....	1	11
			Ice plants.....	1	10

¹ Estimated.

Wage and Hour Regulation

Provision for Minimum-Wage Boards in Uruguay, 1943¹

WAGE boards to determine minimum wages in the various industries were established in Uruguay by the provisions of a law dated November 12, 1943. Regulations for initiation and administration of the law were set forth in a supplementary decree.

A minimum wage is defined as a wage considered necessary, in relation to existing local economic conditions, to guarantee the worker a living standard which satisfies physical, intellectual, and moral needs.

The established minimum rate must be paid in Uruguayan currency, except where part of the wage is in the form of payments in kind (such as food, lodging, equipment) or commissions, tips, etc., in which case the cost or amount thereof may be deducted from the minimum cash wage established. Piece workers are to receive such wages as will permit them to obtain, under normal conditions, remuneration equivalent to the minimum wage fixed for time workers for an 8-hour day or a 48-hour week.

Workers have the right to demand payment from their employers in person, or through the National Labor Institute and Associated Services, or through any other means of collection. The employer may be assessed for damages resulting from failure to comply with the law, such damages in no case to amount to more than 50 percent of the pay judicially determined to be due.

Wage Boards

Composition of boards.—Wage boards are created which will have as their function the fixing of minimum wages to be received by salaried employees and wage earners, in commerce, industry, offices privately owned, and in public services not under the State. Boards may be created at the discretion of the Executive or on petition of one-third of the workers or employers of an industry or branch of commerce, or of the members of employers' or legally recognized employees' associations. The Executive is directed to classify into groups those industries in which wage boards are desired. For each such group the wage board will consist of 7 members (and as many alternates)—3 members designated by the Executive to represent the Government, 2 to be elected by employers, and 2 by the workers. The first of the 3 designated by the Executive will act as chairman. Labor and employer representatives are to be elected by secret ballot from registers compiled by the National Labor Institute and Associated Services from information to be obtained from employers. Further rules and regulations for the carrying out of election of delegates are specified.

¹ Law of November 12, 1943, published in *Diario Oficial*, November 20, 1943; decree No. 1119/941 of November 19, 1943, published in *Diario Oficial*, November 25, 1943. The family-allowance provisions of the same law are summarized on page 346 of this issue.

Workers' and employers' delegates on the wage boards must be native-born or naturalized citizens, at least 23 years of age, and must have had a minimum of 5 years' continuous employment in the industry or group represented (except in case of enterprises in operation less than 5 years). Employees in supervisory positions are not eligible for election as representatives of workers. Persons who have been dismissed during the 90 days preceding the election may be elected as workers' representatives if they meet the specified requirements and their dismissal was not for a serious offense.

Board members are elected for a term of 1 year, but may be re-elected.

Powers of boards.—The Executive is directed to define the jurisdiction of each board created, as to groups and territory covered. Special sub-boards or committees of experts may be constituted to make studies or investigations for information only.

The boards will determine the minimum wage applicable to each category of work subject to their jurisdiction. Rates will be by the hour, day, week, month, or piece, as may be necessary or considered advisable. Special conditions (age, physical fitness, etc.) may also be taken into consideration by the board, in making gradations of rates and establishing proportions of the labor force covered by each.

The boards are authorized to regulate the apprenticeship of persons under 18 years of age, taking into consideration provisions of the Children's Code. They will also participate in the application of the minimum-wage law and will act as a conciliating agency in disputes between employers and workers.

In making their decisions, the boards are directed to take into account the following factors: Economic conditions in the place of employment; the purchasing power of money; the abilities of the workers; existence of occupational hazards; and the earnings of the employing establishments.

Wage decisions of boards will be subject to approval by the Executive and the Cabinet, and any minimum set too low can be raised by the Executive. Decisions of boards may be adopted by simple majority. Notice of a vote upon salaries must be listed in the order of the day and announced at least 48 hours in advance and, to be valid, the board representatives of all three parties must be present. Decisions of boards may be appealed to the Executive except in cases where they are unanimous.

Enforcement and term of awards.—Enforcement is made the responsibility of the National Labor Institute and Associated Services, and violators are subject to fines ranging from 50 to 500 pesos; when a fine amounts to more than 100 pesos, it may be appealed to the Executive.

Schedules of minimum wages will go into effect on the dates set by the award and, unless otherwise specified by the boards, within 30 days of publication in the *Diario Oficial* and other newspapers. The Executive will validate schedules, making them compulsory for an industry, throughout the Republic or throughout a part of it. When a minimum rate has been established by the wage board and validated by the Executive, no new board of the same industrial or regional coverage may be convened until 1 year has elapsed.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Cost of Living in Large Cities, December 1943

RETAIL prices for consumer goods in large cities advanced 0.2 percent from mid-November to mid-December. Cost of clothing and coal were higher, and rents moved up slightly from their November levels, but food prices declined 0.1 percent during the month. The total cost of the budget of the moderate-income city family on December 15, 1943, was 3.3 percent above the December 1942 level and 23.4 percent higher than in January 1941 (the base date of the "Little Steel" formula). The cost-of-living index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics stood at 124.4 percent of the 1935-39 average in December and 124.2 percent in November.

Clothing costs advanced 0.8 percent from November 15 to December 15, to a point about 34 percent above the pre-war figure, largely because of the continuing trend towards replacement of low-cost merchandise by more expensive price lines. Retailers' stocks were depleted by early Christmas purchases, and replacements generally reflected the higher wholesale prices permitted under OPA pricing formulas for fall and winter clothing. Extremely limited supplies of children's clothing, men's work clothing, cotton pajamas, and shorts were reported in most cities. Larger supplies of wool available for civilian use in the autumn of 1943 increased the volume of all-wool clothing, particularly men's suits and women's coats, and there were clearance sales of women's fur-trimmed wool coats in some cities in December.

The OPA granted permission to advance coal prices after mid-November, to cover higher labor costs involved in the wage settlement in the coal industry. The increases in retail prices from November to December ranged from 60 to 70 cents a ton for Pennsylvania anthracite and from 5 to 30 cents for bituminous coal.

The decrease in food costs from November to December was primarily due to a 5-percent drop in egg prices, and to lower prices for pork, lard, peanut butter, and oranges. The decline in egg prices was larger than usual at this time of year. The average price in December (64 cents per dozen) was 3 cents below the November average, and some stores advertised prices below the OPA ceilings. Pork prices in most cities were lower than in November as a result of increased supplies on the market and an accompanying increase in the civilian ration. Prices were higher for fresh fish and flour, and there was a seasonal increase in the prices of most fresh vegetables.

Slight advances in the average rental bill from September to December were reported from 21 of the 34 cities included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index, and the average for the large cities was up 0.1 percent. The rise reflected a number of adjustments in individual returns allowed by OPA under its rent regulations, principally for increased occupancy. There were declines

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TABLE

1942: Aug.
1942: Jan.
1942: May
1942: Sept.
1942: Dec.
1942: Octo-
Nov.
Dec.

¹ Based on
Bureau of

TABLE 2

Nov. 15, 194
Dec. 15, 194
Sept. 15, 194
May 15, 194
Jan. 15, 194
Aug. 15, 194

¹ Based on

in average rents from September to December in 4 cities. In some cities, owners were holding vacant properties for sale, thus adding to the shortage of homes available for rent.

Shortages of furniture and the disappearance of cheaper furniture, towels, and brooms resulted in higher costs for housefurnishings. Several cities reported higher charges for nursing care and hospital services, barber and beauty-shop rates, motion-picture admissions, newspapers, and household supplies. Popular brands of 5-cent cigars were hard to obtain in December, and dealers were rationing purchases to a half dozen cigars.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, December 15, 1943, and Previous Dates

Date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1936: August 15.....	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: January 15.....	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
1942: May 15.....	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
September 15.....	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
December 15.....	120.4	132.7	125.9	108.0	106.3	123.7	112.8
1943: October 15.....	124.4	138.2	² 133.3	108.0	107.9	² 126.7	117.6
November 15.....	² 124.2	137.3	² 133.5	108.0	108.0	² 126.9	117.7
December 15.....	124.4	137.1	134.6	108.1	109.5	127.9	118.1

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Revised.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods by Groups of Items

Period	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Nov. 15, 1943, to Dec. 15, 1943.....	+0.2	-0.1	+0.8	+0.1	+1.4	+0.8	+0.3
Dec. 15, 1942, to Dec. 15, 1943.....	+3.3	+3.3	+6.9	+1	+3.0	+3.4	+4.7
Sept. 15, 1943, to Dec. 15, 1943.....	+5.3	+8.3	+7.0	+1	+3.1	+3.5	+6.0
May 15, 1942, to Dec. 15, 1943.....	+7.2	+12.7	+6.7	-1.6	+4.4	+4.7	+6.5
Jan. 15, 1941, to Dec. 15, 1943.....	+23.4	+40.2	+33.7	+3.0	+8.6	+27.8	+15.9
Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 15, 1943.....	+26.2	+46.6	+34.2	+3.6	+12.3	+27.1	+17.6

¹ Based on indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

TABLE 3.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Specified Periods, by Cities

City	Dec. 15, 1942, to Dec. 15, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 15, 1943	Jan. 1, 1941, to Dec. 15, 1943	May 15, 1942, to Dec. 15, 1943
Average: Large cities	+3.3	+26.2	+23.4	+7.3
New England:				
Boston	+1.9	+24.7	+22.2	+4.3
Manchester	+2.9	+29.2	+26.1	(²)
Portland, Maine	+2.8	+27.2	+25.4	(²)
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	+2.0	+28.0	+23.7	+4.4
New York	+4.9	+26.4	+23.9	+10.4
Philadelphia	+3.3	+26.4	+24.6	+7.8
Pittsburgh	+3.7	+26.4	+22.9	+7.4
Scranton	+3.1	+26.6	+22.5	(²)
East North Central:				
Chicago	+3.0	+24.7	+21.6	+5.7
Cincinnati	+3.5	+27.6	+24.7	+7.2
Cleveland	+4.4	+28.3	+25.8	+6.0
Detroit	+3.3	+27.3	+24.2	+6.6
Indianapolis	+3.2	+27.3	+22.4	(²)
Milwaukee	+2.8	+25.3	+22.5	(²)
West North Central:				
Kansas City	+4.0	+24.1	+24.4	+7.3
Minneapolis	+2.4	+22.5	+19.9	+4.3
St. Louis	+2.9	+25.7	+22.1	+4.7
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	+4.3	+26.8	+24.5	(²)
Baltimore	+3.4	+27.6	+25.0	+4.3
Jacksonville	+5.8	+32.4	+28.0	(²)
Norfolk	+4.7	+33.1	+29.4	(²)
Richmond	+2.3	+24.6	+22.6	(²)
Savannah	+6.1	+32.7	+30.0	+4.0
Washington, D. C.	+3.7	+25.2	+23.5	+7.0
East South Central:				
Birmingham	+5.6	+29.5	+25.6	+7.3
Memphis	+4.4	+30.6	+28.0	(²)
Mobile	+2.8	+28.3	+26.0	(²)
West South Central:				
Houston	+3.3	+22.5	+21.0	+4.2
New Orleans	+3.1	+29.7	+27.1	(²)
Mountain:				
Denver	+3.3	+25.3	+23.5	+4.8
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	+2.2	+26.0	+23.5	+7.3
Portland, Oreg.	+2.1	+29.4	+27.0	(²)
San Francisco	+2.8	+28.4	+25.2	+4.4
Seattle	+2.4	+28.2	+26.0	+4.1

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.² Data for May 15, 1942, not available.

TABLE

Average:
New England:
Boston
Manchester
Portland, Maine
Middle Atlantic:
Buffalo
New York
Philadelphia
Pittsburgh
Scranton
East North Central:
Chicago
Cincinnati
Cleveland
Detroit
Indianapolis
Milwaukee
West North Central:
Kansas City
Minneapolis
St. Louis
South Atlantic:
Atlanta
Baltimore
Jacksonville
Norfolk
Richmond
Savannah
Washington, D. C.
East South Central:
Birmingham
Memphis
Mobile
West South Central:
Houston
New Orleans
Mountain:
Denver
Pacific:
Los Angeles
Portland, Oreg.
San Francisco
Seattle

¹ Based
on
Index

TABLE 4.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living, September 15 to December 15, 1943, by Groups of Items and Cities

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	+0.4	-0.2	+1.6	+0.1	+1.7	+1.3	+0.9
New England:							
Boston.....	+0.6	-1	+2.6	0	+1.1	+2.0	+1.1
Manchester.....	+7	-1	+1.9	0	+6	+1.7	+2.0
Portland, Maine.....	+9	+1.3	+9	+3	+1.6	+1.2	+3
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+5	+2	+1.0	0	+1.6	+2	+8
New York.....	+9	+5	+2.7	+1	+3.0	+1.6	+7
Philadelphia.....	+7	+7	+7	+1	+2.6	+3	+8
Pittsburgh.....	0	-1.7	+4.0	+1	+1.2	+6	+6
Roseton.....	+2	-7	+1.0	-1	+5.8	+3	+4
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	-5	-2.4	+1.0	+2	+1.2	+2.5	+1.5
Cincinnati.....	+4	-2	+6	+2	+1.5	+7	+1.4
Cleveland.....	0	-9	+1.1	+1	+1.0	+1.3	+5
Detroit.....	+8	+4	+7	+2	+2.4	+4.0	+1.2
Indianapolis.....	+1	-1	-1	+1	+1.2	+2	+3
Milwaukee.....	+1	-5	+4	0	+1.6	+4	+4
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+9	+1	+1.2	+4	+1.0	+3	+2.5
Minneapolis.....	+9	+1.5	+1.7	+2	+1.3	+3	-1
St. Louis.....	+6	+1	+1.5	-1	+5	+1.1	+1.4
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	-2	-1.9	+9	+1	+8	+1.9	+9
Baltimore.....	-1	-1.9	+3.5	0	+2.0	+1.7	+1.0
Jacksonville.....	-1.1	-3.9	+1.0	+2	+6	+1.1	+1.3
Norfolk.....	-7	-3.1	+4	+1	+1.2	+1.2	+1.9
Richmond.....	+1	-5	+1.5	-2	+1.3	+4	-1
Savannah.....	-5	-1.8	+1.0	0	-1	+7	+6
Washington, D. C.....	-1	-1.9	+2.1	0	+2.4	+5	+5
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	0	-1.2	+2.2	+1	+1.6	+2.1	+1
Memphis.....	-5	-2.5	+1.0	+1	+5	+7	+1.1
Mobile.....	-5	-2.0	+6	+1	+2	+5	+1.5
West South Central:							
Houston.....	0	-1.0	+4	+2	+2.9	+6	+6
New Orleans.....	-8	-1.8	+4	0	0	+9	+3
Mountain: Denver.....	+1.6	+2.9	+6	0	+2.2	+1.5	+8
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+1.0	+1.1	+1.3	+2	0	+1	+1.5
Portland, Oreg.....	+4	+1	+7	-2	+1	+1.6	+1.1
San Francisco.....	+1.5	+2.7	+1.5	+1	0	+1.7	+6
Seattle.....	+6	+5	+6	+4	0	+4.4	+6

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.² Based on prices for 56 cities collected on Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.³ Index for August and September revised; August 92.5, September 92.5.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, 1935 to December 1943

Year	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—					
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent ²	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings
1935.....	98.1	100.4	95.8	94.2	100.7	94.8
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3
1940.....	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5
1941.....	105.2	105.5	106.3	108.2	102.2	107.3
1942.....	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2
1943:						
Jan. 15.....	120.7	133.0	126.0	108.0	107.3	123.8
Feb. 15.....	121.0	133.6	126.2	108.0	107.2	124.1
Mar. 15.....	122.8	137.4	127.6	108.0	107.4	124.5
Apr. 15.....	124.1	140.6	127.9	108.0	107.5	124.6
May 15.....	125.1	143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	125.1
June 15.....	124.8	141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4
July 15.....	123.9	139.0	129.1	108.0	107.6	125.6
Aug. 15.....	123.4	137.2	129.6	108.0	107.7	125.9
Sept. 15.....	123.9	137.4	132.5	108.0	107.7	126.3
Oct. 15.....	124.4	138.2	133.3	108.0	107.9	126.7
Nov. 15.....	124.2	137.3	133.5	108.0	108.0	126.9
Dec. 15.....	124.4	137.1	134.6	108.1	109.5	127.9

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

Retail Prices of Food in December 1943

PERCENTAGE changes in retail food costs on December 14, 1943, as compared with costs in November 1943, September and December 1942, January 1941, and August 1939, are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined;¹ in Specified Periods, by Commodity Groups

Commodity group	Nov. 16, 1943, to Dec. 14, 1943	Dec. 15, 1942, to Dec. 14, 1943	Sept. 15, 1942, to Dec. 14, 1943	Jan. 14, 1941, to Dec. 14, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Dec. 14, 1943
All foods.....	-0.1	+3.3	+8.3	+40.2	+46.6
Cereals and bakery products.....	+1.1	+2.5	+2.8	+14.2	+18.1
Meats.....	+4.4	-1.7	+2	+29.5	+36.8
Beef and veal.....	+2	-6.5	-5.4	+9.0	+19.7
Pork.....	-3	-9.7	-8.9	+31.2	+38.4
Lamb.....	+4	-1.2	+3	+35.9	+43.7
Chicken.....	+1.4	+10.1	+11.1	+52.8	+57.6
Fish, fresh and canned.....	+7	+22.9	+33.9	+89.7	+120.1
Dairy products.....	-1	+9	+4.5	+27.0	+43.4
Eggs.....	-5.1	+8.3	+16.6	+65.8	+80.6
Fruits and vegetables.....	+7	+11.7	+26.2	+75.5	+77.2
Fresh.....	+8	+13.6	+31.6	+83.6	+84.4
Canned.....	+1	+1.8	+5.0	+42.2	+41.9
Dried.....	0	+8.0	+13.3	+63.2	+80.6
Beverages.....	-1	+2	+7	+37.2	+31.4
Fats and oils.....	-6	-8	+3.0	+54.8	+67.1
Sugar and sweets.....	+1	-8	-2	+32.9	+32.3

¹ The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

Indexes of retail food costs, by commodity groups, are shown in table 2 for specified months between August 1939 and December 1943.

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56¹ Large Cities Combined,² by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates

[1935=100]

Commodity group	1943		1942		1941	1939
	Dec. 14 ³	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods.....	137.1	137.3	132.7	126.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products.....	108.4	108.3	105.8	105.4	94.9	93.4
Meats.....	130.9	130.4	133.2	130.6	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal.....	119.2	119.0	127.5	128.0	109.4	99.6
Pork.....	113.0	113.3	125.2	124.0	88.1	88.0
Lamb.....	134.1	133.5	135.7	133.7	98.7	98.8
Chicken.....	148.5	146.5	134.9	133.7	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned.....	225.2	223.6	183.3	168.2	118.7	90.6
Dairy products.....	133.5	133.6	132.3	127.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs.....	181.0	190.8	167.2	155.2	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables.....	163.7	162.6	146.6	129.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh.....	171.5	170.1	151.0	130.3	93.4	92.8
Canned.....	130.0	129.9	127.7	123.8	91.4	91.6
Dried.....	162.5	162.5	150.5	143.4	99.6	90.3
Beverages.....	124.7	124.8	124.5	123.8	90.9	90.9
Fats and oils.....	124.3	125.0	125.3	120.7	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets.....	126.7	126.6	127.7	127.0	95.3	95.6

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.² Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.³ Preliminary.⁴ Revised.TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ November and December 1943, September and December 1942, and January 1941

Article	1943		1942		1941
	Dec. 14 ²	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Jan. 14
Cereals and bakery products:					
Cereals:					
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds..	63.4	63.0	55.6	54.3	41.4
Macaroni.....do.....	15.6	15.6	14.2	14.1	13.8
Wheat cereal ³25 ounces..	23.3	23.3	24.1	24.0	23.5
Corn flakes.....do.....	6.6	6.6	7.0	7.0	7.1
Corn meal.....do.....	5.9	5.9	5.2	5.0	4.2
Rice ⁴do.....	12.7	12.8	12.5	12.5	7.9
Rolls oats.....do.....	8.7	8.7	8.8	8.7	7.1
Flour, pancake ⁵20 ounces..	11.7	11.4	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Bakery products:					
Bread, white.....do.....	8.9	8.9	8.7	8.7	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....do.....	9.8	9.8	9.6	9.5	8.7
Bread, rye.....do.....	10.1	10.1	9.6	9.7	9.0
Vanilla cookies.....do.....	28.7	28.4	26.2	27.0	25.1
Soda crackers.....do.....	18.7	18.7	16.8	16.6	15.0
Meats:					
Beef:					
Round steak.....do.....	41.8	41.9	44.7	44.2	38.6
Rib roast.....do.....	34.1	33.8	35.0	34.7	31.5
Chuck roast.....do.....	29.0	29.0	30.4	30.0	25.2
Stew meat ³do.....	31.6	31.3	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Liver.....do.....	37.1	36.9	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Hamburger.....do.....	28.8	28.5	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Pork:					
Chops.....do.....	37.6	37.7	43.1	43.1	29.1
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	41.4	41.5	41.8	40.9	30.1
Ham, sliced.....do.....	51.8	51.7	50.7	50.6	45.1
Ham, whole.....do.....	35.7	35.8	38.5	38.3	26.2
Poultry:					
Cutlets.....do.....	46.1	45.9	55.3	54.9	45.2
Roast, boned and rolled ³do.....	35.9	36.2	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Fish:					
Chops.....do.....	37.6	37.7	43.1	43.1	29.1
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	41.4	41.5	41.8	40.9	30.1
Ham, sliced.....do.....	51.8	51.7	50.7	50.6	45.1
Ham, whole.....do.....	35.7	35.8	38.5	38.3	26.2

See footnotes at end of table.

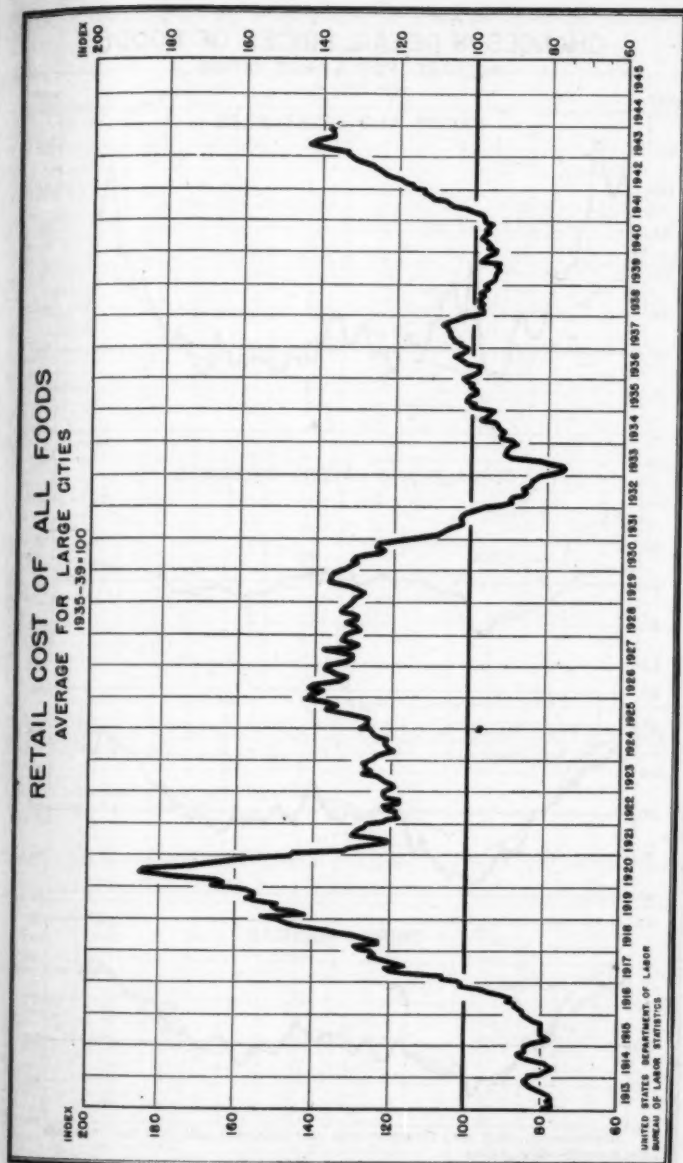
TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ November and December 1943, September and December 1942, and January 1941—Continued

Article	1943		1942		1941
	Dec. 14 ²	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Jan. 11
Meats—Continued.					
Pork—Continued.					
Salt pork.....pound..	22.7	22.8	23.5	23.8	10.7
Liver.....do.	22.1	22.2	(³)	(³)	(³)
Sausage.....do.	38.3	38.5	(³)	(³)	(³)
Bologna, big.....do.	34.4	34.5	(³)	(³)	(³)
Lamb:					
Leg.....do.	40.3	40.2	38.8	37.9	37.8
Rib chops.....do.	45.7	45.3	47.2	47.1	36.0
Poultry: Roasting chickens.....do.	44.7	44.0	43.1	42.6	31.1
Fish:					
Fish (fresh, frozen).....do.	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can.	23.4	23.5	22.3	21.8	13.7
Salmon, red.....do.	41.3	41.2	40.2	40.6	28.4
Dairy products:					
Butter.....pound..	50.2	50.3	54.8	50.6	30.0
Cheese.....do.	36.0	35.9	36.2	34.3	27.0
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart..	15.6	15.6	15.1	15.0	12.0
Milk, fresh (store).....do.	14.4	14.4	13.6	13.5	11.9
Milk, fresh (delivered and store).....do.	15.2	15.2	14.6	14.5	12.7
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can..	10.0	10.0	9.2	8.9	7.1
Eggs:					
Eggs, fresh.....dozen..	63.9	67.4	50.3	55.2	30.9
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh fruits:					
Apples.....pound..	10.5	10.2	7.1	6.2	5.2
Bananas.....do.	12.2	12.2	11.0	10.3	6.6
Oranges.....dozen..	43.4	45.7	44.1	30.1	27.3
Grapefruit.....each..	7.4	9.4	6.1	9.4	(³)
Fresh vegetables:					
Beans, green.....pound..	18.1	18.5	17.0	11.6	14.0
Cabbage.....do.	5.5	4.5	4.6	3.9	2.4
Carrots.....bunch..	10.2	9.8	10.6	6.9	6.0
Lettuce.....head..	13.0	13.0	16.0	12.5	8.4
Onions.....pound..	7.4	7.1	5.0	4.5	3.6
Potatoes.....15 pounds..	62.7	61.6	51.8	48.3	20.2
Spinach.....pound..	10.0	9.6	12.5	10.7	7.3
Sweetpotatoes.....do.	10.0	8.9	5.8	6.4	5.0
Beets.....bunch..	9.8	87.0	(³)	(³)	(³)
Canned fruits:					
Peaches.....No. 2½ can..	26.4	26.4	25.3	24.0	14.5
Pineapple.....do.	27.8	27.9	29.1	28.3	20.0
Grapefruit juice.....No. 2 can..	14.4	14.4	13.3	12.4	(³)
Canned vegetables:					
Beans, green.....do.	14.5	14.4	14.1	13.7	10.0
Corn.....do.	14.2	14.2	13.8	13.3	10.7
Peas.....do.	14.4	14.5	14.8	14.6	11.2
Tomatoes.....do.	12.4	12.3	12.0	11.6	8.4
Soup, vegetable.....11-oz. can..	13.1	12.9	(³)	(³)	(³)
Dried fruits: Prunes.....pound..	16.8	16.7	16.0	14.8	9.6
Dried vegetables:					
Navy beans.....do.	10.5	10.5	9.2	9.1	6.5
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle.....ounce..	3.7	3.7	(³)	(³)	(³)
Beverages:					
Coffee.....pound..	29.9	29.8	28.6	28.7	20.7
Tea.....¾ pound..	23.6	23.6	21.6	22.4	17.6
Cocoa.....½ pound..	9.5	9.5	10.0	10.2	9.1
Fats and oils:					
Lard.....pound..	18.8	18.9	18.8	17.3	8.2
Shortening other than lard—					
In cartons.....do.	20.0	20.0	19.7	19.5	11.3
In other containers.....do.	24.9	24.9	24.4	24.4	10.7
Salad dressing.....pint..	25.5	25.4	25.0	25.2	20.0
Oleomargarine.....pound..	24.0	24.0	22.5	22.4	15.6
Peanut butter.....do.	29.6	31.0	29.8	27.8	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad.....pint..	30.7	30.7	(³)	(³)	(³)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar.....pound..	6.8	6.8	6.9	6.9	5.1
Corn sirup.....24 ounces..	15.9	15.9	15.3	15.1	12.6
Molasses.....18 ounces..	15.9	15.9	15.2	14.9	12.4
Apple butter.....16 ounces..	13.2	13.2	(³)	(³)	(³)

¹ Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.² Preliminary.³ Not included in index.⁴ First priced, February 1943.⁵ Composite prices not computed.⁶ First priced, October 1941.

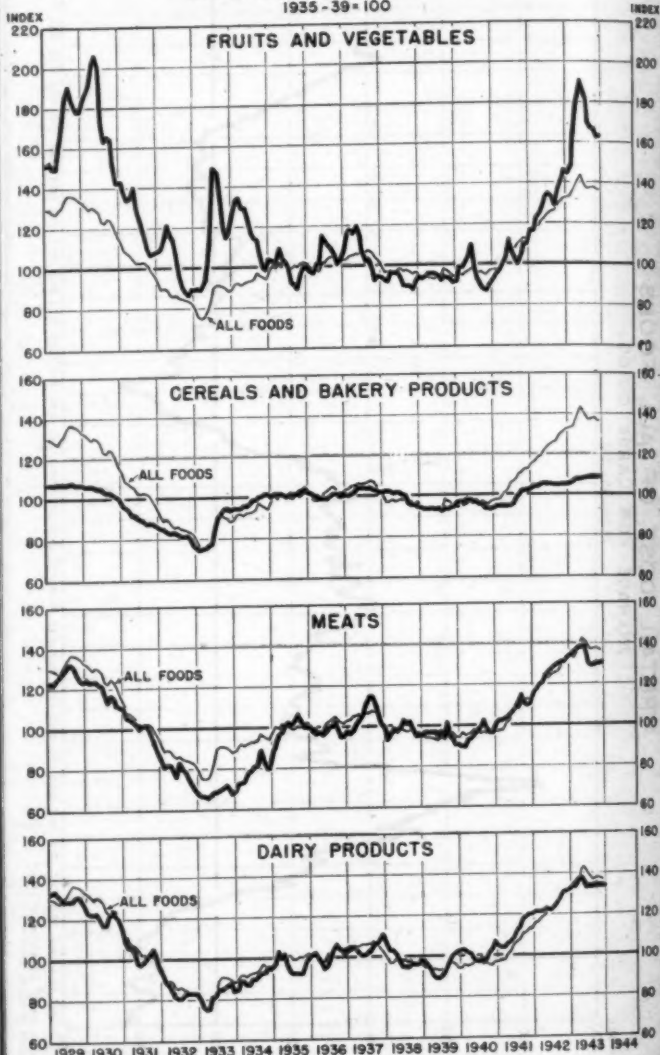
November
continued

1901
Jan. 14
Costs 18.7
(9)
(9)
27.3
28.0
31.1
(9)
11.7
28.4
28.6
27.8
11.0
11.9
12.7
7.1
34.9
8.2
6.6
27.3
(9)
14.0
2.4
6.0
8.4
28.2
7.3
5.0
(9)
16.5
20.9
(9)
10.0
10.7
33.2
8.4
(9)
9.0
6.5
(9)
30.7
17.0
9.1
9.3
11.3
18.3
20.1
15.6
17.9
(9)
8.1
12.6
13.4
(9)



CHANGES IN RETAIL PRICES OF FOODS AVERAGE FOR LARGE CITIES

1935-39 = 100



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE

United States

New York
Boston
Bridge
Fall River
Manchester
New Haven
Providence
Rochester
Syracuse
Buffalo
Newark
New York
Philadelphia
Pittsburgh
Rochester
Syracuse
East North
Chicago
Cincinnati
Cleveland
Columbus
Detroit
Indianapolis
Milwaukee
Peoria
Springfield
West North
Cedar Rapids
Kansas
Minneapolis
Omaha
St. Louis
St. Paul
Wichita

† Aggregate
total purchased
the use of
comparisons
† Preliminary
† Estimated
† Index
† Revised

TABLE 5

Year

1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
1939
1940
1941
1942
1943
1944

† Indexes

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

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TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates
[1935-39=100]

City	1943		1942	1941	City	1943		1942	1941
	Dec. 14 ²	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Jan. 14		Dec. 14 ²	Nov. 16	Dec. 15	Jan. 14
United States.....	137.1	137.3	132.7	97.8	South Atlantic:				
New England:					Atlanta.....	137.3	137.5	130.2	94.3
Boston.....	130.9	131.4	130.7	95.2	Baltimore.....	142.5	142.4	137.3	97.9
Bridgeport.....	136.7	136.7	131.4	96.5	Charleston, S. C.....	134.4	134.8	129.2	95.9
Fall River.....	132.6	133.2	130.9	97.6	Jacksonville.....	144.2	144.9	138.3	98.8
Manchester.....	133.8	133.8	132.3	96.6	Norfolk.....	145.1	144.8	136.4	95.8
New Haven.....	136.9	137.1	133.0	95.7	Richmond.....	135.0	136.5	131.3	93.7
Pewaukee, Maine.....	134.4	134.5	131.3	95.3	Savannah.....	149.7	150.4	137.6	100.5
Powder Mill, Pa.....	134.2	136.2	131.0	96.3	Washington, D. C.....	135.9	137.5	132.7	97.7
Middle Atlantic:					Winston-Salem.....	137.5	138.2	125.6	93.7
Buffalo.....	137.6	137.8	135.5	100.2	East South Central:				
Newark.....	139.4	139.5	134.5	98.8	Birmingham.....	141.2	141.7	130.2	96.0
New York.....	139.1	139.3	132.3	99.5	Jackson.....	144.6	145.8	146.1	105.3
Philadelphia.....	136.1	135.4	130.5	95.0	Knoxville.....	157.4	158.2	139.3	97.1
Pittsburgh.....	135.1	138.0	131.6	96.0	Louisville.....	134.0	134.2	128.0	95.5
Rochester.....	132.5	132.4	132.0	90.9	Memphis.....	144.5	143.9	137.1	94.2
Saratoga.....	136.2	137.0	131.7	97.8	Mobile.....	144.9	145.4	138.3	97.9
East North Central:					West South Central:				
Chicago.....	133.7	133.9	129.9	98.2	Dallas.....	135.5	136.0	126.9	92.8
Cincinnati.....	135.9	134.9	131.5	96.5	Houston.....	137.3	137.3	134.4	102.0
Cleveland.....	142.6	143.1	134.8	99.2	Little Rock.....	135.5	134.5	131.1	95.6
Columbus, Ohio.....	130.7	131.7	126.0	93.4	New Orleans.....	149.0	149.9	142.9	101.9
Detroit.....	134.2	133.3	131.8	97.0	Mountain:				
Indianapolis.....	134.4	134.0	131.4	98.2	Butte.....	137.2	136.9	132.7	98.7
Madison.....	132.9	134.0	128.6	95.9	Denver.....	138.7	136.8	132.4	94.8
Peoria.....	140.8	141.5	135.2	99.0	Salt Lake City.....	141.3	142.6	137.8	97.5
Springfield, Ill.....	141.0	140.9	136.0	96.2	Pacific:				
West North Central:					Los Angeles.....	143.3	144.4	142.8	101.8
Cedar Rapids.....	139.7	139.0	129.1	95.9	Portland, Ore.....	144.9	145.0	145.9	101.7
Kansas City.....	132.7	132.7	127.2	92.4	San Francisco.....	143.7	143.7	140.1	99.6
Minneapolis.....	132.3	132.2	129.9	99.0	Seattle.....	143.1	143.6	143.6	101.0
Omaha.....	132.2	131.8	129.0	97.9					
St. Louis.....	130.3	128.7	134.4	98.2					
St. Paul.....	131.8	131.3	128.1	98.6					
Wichita.....	148.8	146.7	138.3	97.2					

¹ Aggregate costs of all foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), weighted to represent total purchases of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

² Preliminary.

³ Excludes Portsmouth and Newport News.

⁴ Indexes based on June 1940=100.

⁵ Revised.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ 1913 to December 1943

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913.....	79.9	1928.....	130.8	1943.....		1943.....	
1914.....	81.8	1929.....	132.5	January.....	116.2	January.....	123.0
1915.....	80.9	1930.....	126.0	February.....	116.8	February.....	133.6
1916.....	90.8	1931.....	103.9	March.....	118.6	March.....	137.4
1917.....	124.4	1932.....	86.5	April.....	119.6	April.....	140.6
1918.....	149.5	1933.....	84.1	May.....	121.6	May.....	143.0
1919.....	168.8	1934.....	93.7	June.....	123.2	June.....	141.9
1920.....	128.3	1935.....	100.4	July.....	124.6	July.....	139.0
1921.....	119.9	1936.....	101.3	August.....	126.1	August.....	137.2
1922.....	124.0	1937.....	108.3	September.....	126.6	September.....	137.4
1923.....	122.8	1938.....	97.8	October.....	129.6	October.....	138.2
1924.....	132.9	1939.....	95.2	November.....	131.1	November.....	137.3
1925.....	137.4	1940.....	90.6	December.....	132.7	December.....	137.1
1926.....	132.3	1941.....	105.5				
1927.....	132.3	1942.....	129.9				

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1943

The Year 1943

COMMODITY prices in primary markets¹ continued to rise in 1943, but at a much slower rate than for the first year the United States was at war. From the relatively low level of 1939, the all-commodity index of 889 price series rose approximately 2 percent in 1940. It advanced more than 11 percent during the next year, and in 1942 it went up another 13 percent. In 1943, the rise was only a little more than 4 percent. Percentage increases in the all-commodity index from 1939 to 1940, by years, are as follows:

	Percent of Increase
1939 to 1940.....	1.9
1940 to 1941.....	11.1
1941 to 1942.....	13.2
1942 to 1943.....	4.4

From August 1939, directly preceding the outbreak of the war in Europe, until the United States became a belligerent in December 1941, commodity prices in primary markets had increased nearly 25 percent, although ceiling prices and informal agreements had been set up by OPACS early in 1941, chiefly on important industrial raw materials and metals. By the end of January 1942, the Emergency Price Control Act was approved and the average prices for January were 2.6 percent above the December 1941 level. Under this measure OPA was given undisputed authority to control prices, and specific ceilings were placed on commodities, mostly in the industrial field. The act, however, limited OPA's control over prices for agricultural products and they were free to fluctuate without much restriction. By April 1942, prices had risen by 2.8 percent more, and the General Maximum Price Regulation was issued freezing prices of nearly all commodities, except raw agricultural products, at their March levels. While prices rose slightly, 1.6 percent, from April to October, it became evident that tighter controls were necessary and Congress passed the Economic Stabilization Law of October 1942. This authorized and directed the President to issue a general order stabilizing prices, wages, and salaries on the basis of the levels prevailing on September 15, 1942. By the spring of 1943 further controls became necessary, particularly at the consumer level, and in April the hold-the-line order was issued, directing price administrators to fix prices of commodities affecting the cost of living and to reduce prices

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

of commodities which were excessively high, unfair, or inequitable. Under this order, percentage margins were replaced by dollar-and-cent ceilings, particularly for foodstuffs, and prices as far as possible were rolled back to the September 1942 level.

From the enactment of the Economic Stabilization Act of 1942 until the end of May 1943, prices moved up more than 4 percent and were nearly 39 percent above the August 1939 level. From May to the end of the year, markets became more stable and prices dropped about 1 percent by December.

Aside from substantial increases in prices for grains, fruits, and vegetables, dairy products, and cattle feed in agricultural commodity markets, and for anthracite, drugs and pharmaceuticals, and lumber in industrial commodity markets, there were few outstanding price fluctuations in commodity prices at the wholesale level during the year.

Prices for nearly all commodities in 1943 averaged much higher than before the war. The price rise was led by farm products with an increase of 101 percent. Foods rose approximately 59 percent; textile products, 44 percent; and chemicals and allied products, 35 percent. For hides and leather products and miscellaneous commodities, the increase amounted to about 26 percent; for building materials it was 24 percent, and for housefurnishing goods, 20 percent. Average prices for fuel and lighting materials and metals and metal products in 1943 showed increases of 11 percent over the August 1939 level.

Between September 1942—the price level selected for the 'roll-back' in the "hold the line order"—and May 1943, prices for foods rose 8 percent and farm products more than twice that amount. However, from May until December 1943, food prices in primary markets dropped 4.4 percent and farm products over 3 percent.

Largely as a result of the sharp increases in prices for agricultural products, the index for raw materials for the year 1943 was nearly 69 percent over the pre-war level. Semimanufactured commodities and manufactured commodities were approximately 25 percent higher than before the war, while industrial commodities, as measured by the movement in the index for "all commodities other than farm products and foods," were 21 percent higher.

Table 1 presents index numbers of wholesale prices and percentage changes by groups and subgroups of commodities for 1943, 1942, and August 1939.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices and Percentage Changes, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, for 1943, 1942, and August 1939¹

(1926=100)

Group and subgroup	Index, year 1943	Index, year 1942	Percent of change	Index, August 1939	Percent of increase
All commodities.....	103.0	98.8	+4.3	75.0	27.3
Farm products.....	122.6	105.9	+15.8	61.0	100.0
Grains.....	116.3	92.9	+25.2	51.5	125.8
Livestock and poultry.....	128.7	117.8	+9.3	66.0	95.0
Other farm products.....	119.8	101.6	+17.9	60.1	99.2
Foods.....	106.6	99.6	+7.0	67.3	56.6
Dairy products.....	111.1	100.0	+11.1	67.9	62.6
Cereal products.....	93.7	89.2	+5.0	71.9	30.1
Fruits and vegetables.....	121.3	95.5	+27.0	58.5	107.4
Meats.....	110.3	111.8	-1.3	73.7	48.7
Other foods.....	97.3	92.3	+5.4	60.3	61.4
Hides and leather products.....	117.5	117.7	-.2	92.7	26.1
Shoes.....	126.4	125.7	+.6	109.8	14.4
Hides and skins.....	114.7	117.6	-2.5	77.2	48.6
Leather.....	101.3	101.3	0	84.0	19.6
Other leather products.....	115.2	114.9	+.3	97.1	18.6
Textile products.....	97.4	96.9	+.5	67.8	43.7
Clothing.....	107.0	106.9	+.1	81.5	31.3
Cotton goods.....	112.7	112.4	+.3	61.3	72.1
Hosiery and underwear.....	70.8	70.5	+.4	61.8	14.1
Rayon.....	30.3	30.3	0	28.5	6.3
Silk.....	(1)	(1)		44.3	
Woolen and worsted goods.....	112.5	110.4	+1.9	75.3	49.0
Other textile products.....	98.8	97.9	+.9	63.7	56.1
Fuel and lighting.....	80.8	78.5	+2.9	72.6	11.3
Anthracite.....	90.4	85.5	+5.7	72.1	25.4
Bituminous coal.....	116.1	109.7	+5.8	96.0	20.9
Coke.....	122.7	122.1	+.6	104.2	17.6
Electricity.....	(1)	63.8		75.8	
Gas.....	(1)	78.4		86.7	
Petroleum and products.....	62.5	59.8	+4.5	51.7	20.9
Metals and metal products.....	103.8	103.8	0	92.5	12.4
Agricultural implements.....	96.9	96.9	0	92.5	4.4
Farm machinery.....	98.0	98.0	0	94.7	3.3
Iron and steel.....	97.2	97.2	0	95.1	2.2
Motor vehicles.....	112.8	112.7	+.1	92.5	21.9
Nonferrous metals.....	86.0	85.7	+.4	74.6	14.3
Plumbing and heating.....	90.7	95.4	-4.9	79.3	14.4
Building materials.....	111.4	110.2	+1.1	89.6	24.3
Brick and tile.....	90.1	98.0	+1.1	90.5	9.6
Cement.....	93.8	94.0	-.2	91.8	4.7
Lumber.....	138.5	132.8	+4.3	90.1	54.7
Paint and paint materials.....	102.3	100.3	+2.0	82.1	24.6
Plumbing and heating.....	90.7	95.4	-4.9	79.3	14.4
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	102.0	103.5	-1.4	89.6	14.0
Chemicals and allied products.....	100.3	97.1	+3.3	74.2	35.2
Chemicals.....	96.5	96.2	+.3	83.8	14.3
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	165.2	133.8	+23.5	77.1	114.3
Fertilizer materials.....	80.0	78.7	+1.7	65.5	21.1
Mixed fertilizers.....	86.1	82.7	+4.1	73.1	17.0
Oils and fats.....	101.9	105.1	-3.0	40.6	151.0
Housefurnishing goods.....	102.7	102.4	+.3	85.6	20.0
Furnishings.....	107.2	107.3	-.1	90.0	18.1
Furniture.....	98.1	97.4	+.7	81.1	20.0
Miscellaneous.....	92.2	89.7	+2.8	73.3	25.0
Automobile tires and tubes.....	73.0	72.5	+.7	60.5	20.7
Cattle feed.....	152.7	134.4	+13.6	68.4	123.7
Paper and pulp.....	104.1	100.8	+3.3	80.0	30.1
Rubber, crude.....	46.2	46.3	-.2	34.9	32.4
Other miscellaneous.....	95.8	93.4	+2.6	81.3	17.1
Raw materials.....	112.1	100.6	+11.4	66.5	68.0
Semimanufactured articles.....	92.9	92.6	+.3	74.5	24.7
Manufactured products.....	100.1	98.6	+1.5	79.1	26.7
All commodities other than farm products.....	98.7	97.0	+1.8	77.9	26.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	96.9	95.5	+1.5	80.1	21.0

¹ Data not available.

Index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities for selected years are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities
[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	1943	1942	1941	1940	1939	1937	1933	1929
All commodities	103.1	98.8	87.3	78.6	77.1	86.3	65.9	95.3
Farm products	122.6	105.9	82.4	67.7	65.2	86.4	51.4	104.9
Grains	116.3	92.9	76.9	68.0	58.6	98.3	53.1	97.4
Livestock and poultry	128.7	117.8	91.6	69.2	72.2	95.5	43.4	106.1
Other farm products	119.8	101.6	77.8	66.1	62.6	77.2	55.8	106.6
Food	106.6	99.6	82.7	71.3	70.4	85.5	60.5	99.9
Dairy products	111.1	100.0	87.3	77.6	69.5	83.1	60.7	105.6
Cereal products	112.7	98.2	80.7	78.3	74.8	87.6	75.0	98.0
Fruits and vegetables	121.3	98.5	67.5	63.1	62.0	74.2	61.7	97.8
Meats	110.3	111.8	90.4	73.3	77.2	99.1	59.0	109.1
Other food	97.3	92.3	78.9	63.5	64.1	78.6	61.1	93.9
Hides and leather products	117.5	117.7	108.3	100.8	95.6	104.6	80.9	109.1
Shoes	126.4	125.7	113.5	107.6	102.6	105.0	90.2	106.3
Hides and skins	114.7	117.6	108.4	91.9	84.6	113.5	67.1	112.7
Leather	101.3	101.3	97.9	92.5	87.5	96.8	71.4	113.2
Other leather products	115.2	114.9	104.7	99.9	97.1	102.6	81.1	106.4
Textile products	97.4	96.9	84.8	73.8	79.7	76.3	64.8	90.4
Clothing	107.0	106.9	92.6	85.2	82.0	87.9	72.2	90.0
Cotton goods	113.7	112.4	94.2	71.4	67.2	84.3	71.2	98.8
Hosiery and underwear	70.8	70.5	63.1	62.3	61.4	65.1	58.9	88.5
Rayon	30.3	30.3	29.5	29.5	28.8	33.3	33.0	68.4
Silk	(1)	(1)	(1)	46.8	46.1	32.7	29.8	82.7
Woolen and worsted goods	112.5	110.4	96.6	85.7	79.8	91.1	69.3	88.3
Other textile products	98.8	97.9	90.7	74.5	69.2	68.4	72.5	93.1
Fuel and lighting materials	80.8	78.5	76.2	71.7	73.1	77.6	66.3	83.0
Anthracite	90.4	85.5	82.7	78.9	75.8	77.8	82.2	90.1
Bituminous coal	116.1	109.7	104.3	97.6	97.5	98.6	82.8	91.3
Coke	122.7	122.1	119.3	110.2	105.6	103.1	77.9	84.6
Electricity	63.8	68.3	74.5	78.6	80.4	94.3	94.3	94.5
Oil	78.4	78.6	82.0	84.1	82.4	97.5	93.1	93.1
Petroleum and products	62.5	59.8	57.0	50.0	52.2	60.5	41.0	71.3
Metal and metal products	103.8	103.8	99.4	95.8	94.4	95.7	79.8	100.5
Agricultural implements	96.9	96.0	93.5	92.5	93.4	94.0	83.5	98.7
Farm machinery	98.0	98.0	94.8	93.7	94.6	95.6	87.7	98.0
Iron and steel	97.2	97.2	96.4	95.1	95.8	98.2	78.6	94.9
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.7	103.3	96.7	93.4	89.3	83.2	100.0
Nonferrous metals	86.0	85.7	84.4	81.3	78.0	89.6	59.6	106.1
Pumbing and heating	90.7	95.4	84.8	80.4	79.2	78.8	67.1	95.0
Building materials	111.4	110.2	103.2	94.8	90.5	95.2	77.0	95.4
Brick and tile	99.1	98.0	93.7	90.5	91.4	93.5	79.2	94.3
Cement	93.8	94.0	92.0	90.8	91.3	99.0	88.1	89.0
Lumber	138.5	132.8	122.5	102.9	93.2	99.7	70.7	93.8
Paint and paint materials	102.3	100.3	91.4	85.7	82.8	85.4	73.3	94.9
Pumbing and heating	90.7	95.4	84.8	80.4	79.2	78.8	67.1	95.0
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	107.3	113.2	88.1	98.1
Other building materials	102.0	103.5	98.3	93.3	90.2	99.1	82.7	97.7
Chemicals and allied products	100.3	97.1	84.6	77.0	76.0	82.6	72.1	94.0
Chemicals	96.5	96.2	87.2	85.1	84.7	88.2	86.8	99.7
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	105.2	133.8	105.1	88.9	78.2	86.6	54.6	66.8
Fertilizer materials	80.0	78.7	73.5	69.4	67.9	69.0	62.9	93.6
Mixed fertilizers	86.1	82.7	76.0	73.8	73.0	73.8	64.0	95.2
Oils and fats	101.9	108.1	77.6	44.3	48.4	76.8	39.4	89.0
Housefurnishing goods	102.7	102.4	94.3	88.5	86.3	89.7	75.8	94.3
Furnishings	107.2	107.3	99.9	94.7	91.1	93.4	76.5	93.6
Furniture	98.1	97.4	88.4	81.8	81.3	85.9	75.1	95.0
Miscellaneous	92.2	89.7	82.0	77.3	74.8	77.8	62.5	82.6
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	72.5	61.0	57.8	59.5	55.8	42.1	54.5
Cattle feed	152.7	134.4	101.2	87.8	83.3	110.5	57.9	121.6
Paper and pulp	104.1	100.8	98.2	91.7	82.4	91.7	76.6	88.9
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.3	46.1	41.5	37.2	40.5	12.2	42.3
Other miscellaneous	95.8	93.4	87.8	84.1	82.6	84.7	76.2	98.4
Raw materials	112.1	100.6	83.5	71.9	70.2	84.8	56.5	97.5
Semi-manufactured articles	92.9	92.6	86.9	79.1	77.0	85.3	65.4	93.9
Manufactured products	100.1	98.6	89.1	81.6	80.4	87.2	70.5	94.5
All commodities other than farm products	98.7	97.0	88.3	80.8	79.5	86.2	69.0	93.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods	96.9	95.5	89.0	83.0	81.3	85.3	71.2	91.6

¹ Data not available.

Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities in December 1943

Farm products.—Largely as a result of their relatively low level of the summer of 1939 and the greatly increased wartime demand, average prices for farm products in primary markets have risen much faster than those for any other group of commodities since the outbreak of war—nearly 100 percent by December 1943. Agricultural commodity prices continued to move higher through the first 6 months of 1943 and by June had reached the highest level since October 1920. Shortly after the "hold-the-line" order was issued in the spring of 1943, prices of these products began to fall and by the end of the year they were 3.5 percent below their midyear peak level.

In December 1943 prices for farm products were 0.3 percent higher than in November and 7 percent higher than in December 1942. Sharp advances in the grain markets largely accounted for the rise. In addition to a 4-percent gain in December, grains averaged 27 percent higher than a year ago and almost 149 percent higher than in August 1939. Almost all grains, except oats, advanced in December. Barley rose 1 percent; wheat, 3 percent; rye, 4.5 percent; and corn increased over 8 percent as a result of an upward adjustment in ceiling prices by OPA. Heavy marketing of hogs brought average prices for livestock and poultry down 0.8 percent during the month. Higher prices were reported for calves, cows, sheep, and live poultry in the Chicago market. In addition, there were price increases for cotton, hay, seeds, dried beans, onions, sweetpotatoes, tobacco, and wool. Eggs were seasonally lower and citrus fruits and white potatoes in most eastern markets declined.

Foods.—Although prices for foods in primary markets continued to rise in 1943, the gain was only 1 percent as compared to nearly 15 percent from December 1941 to December 1942, and 25 percent from December 1940 to December 1941. The sharp advance during the first 2 years of the war resulted from heavy civilian and military requirements and skyrocketing prices for farm products. The comparatively small rise in 1943 reflected the results of the broad expansion in the rationing and price-control program of OPA.

Weakening prices for pork, butter, and cheese caused food prices to average 0.2 percent lower in December than in November. Quotations were higher for oatmeal and flour, apples, and cottonseed oil. Average prices for foods were 1.2 percent higher than in December 1942. Following the decline of 3.6 percent in livestock and poultry markets during the course of the year, prices for meats dropped 6.8 percent and dairy products, 1.1 percent.

Fruits and vegetables, however, were 14 percent higher and cereal products were 6.5 percent higher than their year-ago levels.

Prices for nearly all foods were substantially higher than before the war. The group as a whole rose 57 percent, led by an increase of nearly 104 percent for fruits and vegetables. Dairy products and "other foods" were 63 percent higher than in August 1939; meats advanced about 44 percent and cereal products, 32 percent.

Hides and leather products.—Prices for most hides and leather products were fairly stable during 1943, except for a decline in price for sheepskins which took place late in the year, following the with-

drawal in September of restrictions which allocated practically the entire output of shearlings to the armed forces. However, in December prices for both sheepskins and goatskins advanced and the index for hides and leather products rose 0.4 percent over the November average.

A decline in prices for hides and skins, principally shearlings, brought the index for all hides and leather products down 0.7 percent from the December 1942 level. Prices for shoes, luggage, and leather showed little or no fluctuation. Compared with August 1939, prices for hides and leather products were 26 percent higher. Most of the movement again was in hides and skins, with a rise of over 44 percent. Shoes advanced 25 percent.

Textile products.—As all textile products have been under OPA regulation since the spring of 1942, there has been very little movement in these markets from that time. No changes were reported in prices between November and December. Textile products averaged 0.5 percent higher in December 1943 than for the corresponding month of 1942, reflecting upward adjustments in certain ceiling prices to allow for higher production costs, particularly for hosiery and underwear. There were also price increases for burlap and binder twine. Average prices for textile products were 44 percent higher than at the outbreak of the war. Cotton goods showed the greatest advance, over 72 percent; "other textile products" increased nearly 58 percent; woolen and worsted goods, 49 percent; and clothing, 31 percent.

Fuel and lighting materials.—Prices for coal advanced moderately throughout the year 1943, because of higher costs of operation and transportation, although part of the increased transportation cost was absorbed by Government subsidies. In December, anthracite rose nearly 5 percent over the November level and bituminous coal increased 2 percent.

Prices for all fuel and lighting materials in December were 3.7 percent higher than in December 1942, anthracite having risen 10 percent; bituminous coal, about 6 percent; petroleum products, over 4 percent; and coke, 2 percent. One of the most outstanding increases in petroleum was an increase allowed by OPA in California crude oil. Strikes and heavy war requirements limited supplies of coal and petroleum products for civilian use in 1943. Requests for a general price increase by the oil industry were under consideration by Government officials at the end of the year.

Since the war began in Europe, there has been a 13-percent price increase for fuel and lighting materials. During the 52 months of war, anthracite advanced 32 percent; bituminous coal and petroleum products, about 23 percent; and coke, over 19 percent.

Metals and metal products.—Published prices for metals and metal products continued unchanged in December 1943 at the same level they were in December 1942. Minor price increases occurred in quotations for farm machinery and certain plumbing and heating equipment items. The outstanding development during the year was the continued expansion in production. The improved supply situation late in the year resulted in price reductions for a few metals, particularly scrap. In midyear, ceiling prices for aluminum scrap

were lowered 1 cent a pound and at the end of 1943, market prices were below ceiling levels. In order to stimulate production, subsidies were paid to certain producers of copper, lead, and zinc for high-cost output, and market prices for these metals were thus kept steady.

Quotations for metals and metal products have been among the most stable for any industry since the war began. The group averaged 11 percent higher in December 1943 than in August 1939. Higher prices for motor vehicles, plumbing and heating equipment, and non-ferrous metals accounted for most of this advance.

Building materials.—Prices of building materials in primary markets were 0.3 percent higher in December than in November, as a result of higher prices for brick in some areas, for certain types of lumber, and for rosin and tar. Average prices in December were 3 percent over their year-ago level. Rising prices for lumber, rosin, turpentine, and linseed oil were largely responsible for the advance. OPA granted higher ceiling prices for many types of lumber in order to stimulate production and to compensate for increased production costs. At the end of 1943, average prices for building materials were about 27 percent higher than before the war, led by an advance of nearly 60 percent for lumber. Prices for paint materials were 26 percent higher and for brick and tile over 10 percent higher.

Chemicals and allied products.—Except for continued advances in prices for mixed fertilizers, the chemicals and allied products markets were comparatively stable in December and quotations for these commodities were less than 1 percent higher than in December 1942. When compared with August 1939, however, prices for drugs and pharmaceuticals and industrial fats and oils had risen sharply. After the summer of 1939, fats and oils advanced 151 percent and drugs and pharmaceuticals rose 114 percent. Increased taxes on ethyl alcohol contributed in a large measure to the rise in average prices for the latter group of products.

Housefurnishing goods.—There were no changes reported in prices for furnishings or furniture during December 1943. The index for housefurnishing goods was only slightly—0.3 percent—higher than in December a year ago. Prices for furniture in wholesale markets advanced about 21 percent after the outbreak of war, while furnishings increased 19 percent after August 1939.

Miscellaneous commodities.—In the miscellaneous group of commodities, prices of boxboard continued to advance in December and higher quotations were also reported for cylinder oil. When compared with the level of a year ago, prices for cattle feed advanced 12 percent and paper and pulp 7 percent. Quotations for cattle feed, such as bran, middlings, linseed meal, and cottonseed meal, in wholesale markets during December were 133 percent higher than in August 1939. In this same period, prices for paper and pulp and rubber rose 32 percent.

Percentage comparisons of the December 1943 level of wholesale prices with November 1943, December 1942, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers, are given in table 3.

Table 3
Percentage comparisons of the December 1943 level of wholesale prices with November 1943, December 1942, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers

Commodity	Nov. 1943	Dec. 1942	Aug. 1939
All commodities	100	100	100
Food and kindred products	100	100	100
Alcohol, tobacco, and other stimulants	100	100	100
Textile mill products	100	100	100
Apparel and other wearing apparel	100	100	100
Shoes and leather goods	100	100	100
Furniture and furnishings	100	100	100
Household goods	100	100	100
Building materials	100	100	100
Chemicals and allied products	100	100	100
Metals and metal products	100	100	100
Transportation equipment	100	100	100
Electric, electronic, and optical equipment	100	100	100
Communications equipment	100	100	100
Other miscellaneous	100	100	100

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, December 1943, Compared with November 1943, December 1942, and August 1939

(1926=100)

Group and subgroup	December 1943	November 1943	Percent of change	December 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of increase
All commodities	103.2	102.9	+0.3	101.0	+2.2	75.0	37.6
Farm products	121.8	121.4	+0.3	113.8	+7.0	61.0	99.7
Grains	128.2	123.2	+4.1	100.7	+27.3	51.5	148.9
Livestock and poultry	119.5	120.5	-.8	123.9	-3.6	66.0	81.1
Other farm products	120.6	120.5	+1	110.4	+9.2	60.1	100.7
Feeds	105.6	105.8	-.2	104.3	+1.2	67.2	57.1
Dairy products	110.6	110.9	-.3	111.8	-1.1	67.9	62.9
Cereal products	95.1	94.7	+4	80.3	+6.5	71.9	32.3
Fruits and vegetables	119.3	118.5	+7	104.3	+14.4	58.5	103.9
Nuts	105.9	106.3	-.4	113.6	-6.8	73.7	43.7
Other feeds	98.5	99.5	-1.0	95.9	+2.7	60.3	63.3
Hides and leather products	117.0	116.5	+4	117.8	-.7	92.7	36.2
Shoes	126.4	126.4	0	126.4	0	100.8	35.4
Hides and skins	111.6	108.5	+2.9	116.0	-3.8	77.2	44.6
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	18.6
Textile products	97.7	97.7	0	97.2	+5	67.8	44.1
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.0	0	81.5	31.3
Cotton goods	112.9	112.9	0	112.4	+4	65.5	72.4
Hosiery and underwear	71.7	71.7	0	70.5	+1.7	61.5	16.6
Rayon	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	6.3
Woolen and worsted goods	(1)	(1)	0	(1)	0	44.3	
Other textile products	112.5	112.5	0	112.1	+4	76.6	49.0
Textile products	100.5	100.5	0	97.7	+2.9	63.7	57.8
Fuel and lighting materials	82.1	81.2	+1.1	79.2	+3.7	72.6	13.1
Anthracite	95.0	90.6	+4.9	86.2	+10.2	72.1	31.8
Bituminous coal	118.8	116.6	+1.9	112.4	+5.7	96.0	23.8
Coke	124.5	124.1	+3	122.1	+2.0	104.2	19.5
Electricity	(1)	58.3		62.0		75.8	
Gas	(1)	77.0		76.1		86.7	
Petroleum and products	63.5	63.5	0	60.7	+4.6	51.7	22.8
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.8	0	103.8	0	93.2	11.4
Agricultural implements	96.9	96.9	0	96.9	0	93.5	3.6
Farm machinery	98.1	98.1	0	98.0	+1	94.7	3.6
Iron and steel	97.1	97.1	0	97.2	-.1	95.1	2.1
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	21.9
Numerous metals	86.0	86.0	0	86.0	0	74.6	15.3
Plumbing and heating	91.8	91.8	0	90.4	+1.5	79.3	15.8
Building materials	113.4	113.1	+3	110.0	+3.1	89.6	26.6
Brick and tile	100.0	100.0	0	98.7	+1.3	90.5	10.5
Cement	93.6	93.6	0	94.2	-.6	91.3	2.5
Lumber	144.0	143.9	+1	133.3	+8.0	90.1	60.8
Paint and paint materials	103.3	103.2	+1	100.3	+3.0	82.1	25.8
Plumbing and heating	91.8	91.8	0	90.4	+1.5	79.3	15.8
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	102.8	102.2	+6	103.0	-.2	89.5	14.9
Chemicals and allied products	100.4	100.3	+1	99.5	+9	74.2	35.3
Chemicals	96.3	96.3	0	96.1	+2	83.5	14.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	165.2	165.2	0	165.4	-.1	77.1	114.3
Fertilizer materials	81.3	81.3	0	79.0	+2.9	65.5	24.1
Mineral fertilizers	86.5	85.8	+8	82.8	+4.5	73.1	18.2
Oil and fats	102.0	102.0	0	101.5	+8	40.6	151.2
Household goods	102.8	102.8	0	102.5	+3	88.6	20.1
Furnishings	107.1	107.1	0	107.3	-.2	90.0	19.0
Furniture	98.4	98.4	0	97.4	+1.0	81.1	21.3
Miscellaneous	93.3	93.2	+1	90.5	+3.1	73.3	27.3
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	0	142.1	+12.3	68.4	133.3
Paper and pulp	106.0	105.8	+2	98.0	+7.1	80.0	32.5
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	32.4
Other miscellaneous	96.7	96.5	+2	94.9	+1.9	81.3	18.9
Raw materials	112.1	111.3	+7	100.1	+5.7	66.5	68.6
Manufactured articles	93.1	92.9	+2	92.5	+6	74.5	25.0
Manufactured products	100.2	100.2	0	96.6	+6	79.1	26.7
All commodities other than farm products	99.0	98.8	+2	98.1	+9	77.9	27.1
All commodities other than farm products and feeds	97.6	97.4	+2	95.9	+1.8	80.1	21.8

1 Data not available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to December 1943

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1943, and by months from December 1942 to December 1943, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	93.2
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	69.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	69.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.5
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	80.2
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.2	74.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.5	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.9	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	88.7	98.3
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	100.3	102.7	92.2	98.1
1943											
December	113.8	104.3	117.8	97.2	79.2	103.8	110.0	99.5	102.5	90.5	98.0
1943											
January	117.0	105.2	117.8	97.3	79.3	103.8	109.8	100.2	102.5	90.7	98.9
February	119.0	105.8	117.8	97.3	79.8	103.8	110.2	100.3	102.6	90.9	99.3
March	122.3	107.4	117.8	97.3	80.3	103.8	110.4	100.0	102.6	91.4	99.7
April	123.9	108.4	117.8	97.4	80.6	103.8	110.3	100.1	102.6	91.6	99.7
May	125.7	110.5	117.8	97.4	80.8	103.8	110.5	100.2	102.7	91.9	99.8
June	126.2	109.6	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.8	110.6	100.0	102.8	91.8	99.8
July	125.0	107.2	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.7	110.7	100.1	102.6	92.3	99.2
August	123.5	105.8	117.8	97.4	80.9	103.7	112.2	100.2	102.6	92.6	99.1
September	123.1	105.6	117.8	97.5	81.0	103.7	112.5	100.3	102.6	93.0	99.1
October	122.2	105.1	117.8	97.6	81.0	103.7	112.7	100.4	102.6	93.1	99.0
November	121.4	105.8	116.5	97.7	81.2	103.8	113.1	100.3	102.8	93.2	98.9
December	121.6	105.6	117.0	97.7	82.1	103.8	113.4	100.4	102.8	93.3	98.2

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 8 and 9 of Wholesale Prices, July-December and Year 1942 (Bulletin No. 736).

TABLE 5.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1943	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1943					
Jan.	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	Jan.	108.2	92.8	100.1	98.5	96.0
Feb.	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	Feb.	109.6	92.9	100.3	98.7	96.2
Mar.	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	Mar.	112.0	93.0	100.5	99.0	96.5
Apr.	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	Apr.	112.8	93.1	100.6	99.1	96.6
May	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	May	114.0	93.0	100.7	99.2	96.7
June						June	114.3	92.8	100.1	98.7	96.8
July	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	July	113.6	92.8	99.6	98.3	96.9
Aug.	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	Aug.	112.7	92.9	99.7	98.5	97.1
Sept.	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	Sept.	112.4	92.9	99.9	98.6	97.2
Oct.	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	Oct.	111.9	92.9	100.0	98.7	97.3
Nov.	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	Nov.	111.3	92.9	100.2	98.8	97.4
Dec.	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	Dec.	112.1	93.1	100.2	99.0	97.6
1944											
Dec.	106.1	92.5	99.6	98.1	95.9						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during November and December 1943 are shown by the index numbers in table 6. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 6.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, November and December 1943

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Dec. 25	Dec. 18	Dec. 11	Dec. 4	Nov. 27	Nov. 20	Nov. 13	Nov. 6
All commodities	102.9	102.9	102.9	102.8	102.6	102.6	102.8	102.9
Farm products	122.0	121.8	122.0	121.8	121.2	121.2	122.1	122.8
Fuels	105.7	105.7	105.9	105.6	105.8	105.6	105.5	105.7
Rubbers and leather products	117.9	117.9	117.5	117.5	116.9	118.4	118.4	118.4
Textile products	97.2	97.2	97.2	97.2	97.2	97.2	97.2	97.2
Fuel and lighting materials	82.6	82.6	82.4	82.1	81.7	81.6	81.6	81.6
Metals and metal products	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8
Building materials	113.5	113.4	113.4	113.1	113.0	113.0	113.0	113.0
Chemicals and allied products	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.4	100.4	100.4	100.4	100.4
Housefurnishing goods	104.4	104.4	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2
Miscellaneous	93.0	93.0	93.0	93.0	93.0	93.0	93.0	92.9
Raw materials	112.2	112.1	112.1	111.7	111.1	111.3	111.7	112.1
Semi-manufactured articles	93.1	93.1	93.1	92.9	92.9	92.9	92.9	92.9
Manufactured products	100.4	100.4	100.4	100.4	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3
All commodities other than farm products	98.9	98.9	98.8	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	97.8	97.8	97.8	97.6	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, November 1943

THE total separation rate in all manufacturing continued to fall in November, reaching 6.29 per 100 employees, the lowest rate in 1943. All the components of total separations declined during the month, with the exception of lay-offs.

The military separation rate was lower than at any time since the United States entered the war. The rate of 0.51 per 100 employees in November 1943 compares with a rate of 1.55 in November 1942 and a peak of 1.71 in October 1942. Military separations constituted only 8 percent of total separations in November 1943 as compared with 22 percent in the same month of 1942.

Extremely high lay-off rates were reported by the chemicals and allied products group, the ordnance group, and the lumber and timber basic products group. The lay-off rate of 2.58 in the chemicals group reflects the completion or cancelation of contracts in various plants of the small-arms ammunition and explosives industries. Similarly, the lay-off rate of 1.71 per 100 employees in the ordnance group was brought about by the termination of contracts in the heavy ammunition and tank industries. A shortage of logs, coupled with a seasonal slump, contributed to the lay-off rate of 1.66 in the lumber group.

Of the 30 selected industries for which separation rates for women are shown, 7 reported total separation rates above 10 per 100 employees. The high separation rates for women in cast-iron pipe and fittings, and in the two smelting and refining industries, is primarily due to the difficulty of adapting the work in these industries to women. Both the small-arms and heavy ammunition industries, when confronted with need for laying off employees, were more inclined to lay off women than men. The separation rate for women of 11.58 per 100 employees in shipbuilding was brought about by large numbers of women leaving, at the onset of cold weather, because much of the work in this industry is done out-of-doors.

In both anthracite and bituminous-coal mining the total separation rates were considerably below the rates for all manufacturing. The separation rate in metal mining was 5.64 per 100 employees. The separation rate for each of the components of the metal-mining group was below the level in October 1943.

TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries¹

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Total separation:												
1943.....	7.11	7.04	7.69	7.54	6.57	7.07	7.56	8.18	8.16	7.02	6.29
1942.....	5.10	4.82	5.36	6.12	6.54	6.46	6.73	7.06	8.10	7.91	7.09	6.37
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46
Quit:												
1943.....	4.45	4.65	5.36	5.41	4.81	5.20	5.61	6.30	6.29	5.19	4.40
1942.....	2.36	2.41	3.02	3.59	3.77	3.85	4.02	4.31	5.19	4.65	4.21	3.71
1939.....	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.07	.93	.83	.69
Discharge:												
1943.....	.52	.50	.57	.53	.55	.61	.68	.67	.62	.64	2.61
1942.....	.30	.29	.33	.35	.38	.38	.43	.42	.44	.45	.43	.46
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12
Lay-off: ²												
1943.....	.74	.54	.52	.64	.45	.50	.50	.46	.53	.51	2.70
1942.....	1.61	1.39	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.21	1.05	.87	.68	.78	.65	.70
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65
Military:												
1943.....	1.26	1.23	1.12	.87	.69	.69	.69	.67	.64	.61	2.51
1942.....	.67	.56	.63	.68	.68	.78	.93	1.13	1.48	1.71	1.55	1.29
Miscellaneous: ³												
1943.....	.14	.12	.12	.09	.07	.07	.08	.08	.08	.07	.07
1942.....	.16	.17	.19	.19	.28	.24	.30	.33	.31	.32	.25	.21
Accession:												
1943.....	8.28	7.87	8.32	7.43	7.18	8.40	7.83	7.62	7.73	7.17	6.51
1942.....	6.87	6.02	6.99	7.12	7.29	8.25	8.28	7.90	9.15	8.69	8.14	6.92
1939.....	4.00	3.66	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84

¹ Turnover rates are not comparable to the employment and pay-roll reports issued monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, as the former are based on data for the entire month, while the latter refer only to pay periods ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turnover data refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. Certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered by the labor turnover survey and the sample is not as extensive as that of the employment survey which includes a larger number of small plants.

² Preliminary figure.

³ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

⁴ Data for 1939 included with quits.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November 1943¹

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	November	October	November	October	November	November	November	November	October
Manufacturing									
Iron and steel and their products.....	4.65	5.07	3.13	3.56	0.43	0.43	0.66	4.51	4.86
Blat. furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	3.61	3.69	2.37	2.56	.17	.41	.66	3.07	3.14
Gray-iron castings.....	7.10	7.94	5.08	5.86	1.05	.30	.67	7.91	7.64
Malleable-iron castings.....	5.58	5.24	4.41	4.08	.47	.08	.62	5.09	5.60
Steel castings.....	6.73	7.18	5.05	5.23	.68	.25	.75	6.92	6.77
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	5.29	7.20	3.05	3.94	.23	1.45	.56	3.60	4.84
The cans and other tinware.....	9.76	12.41	6.90	9.79	1.09	.99	.78	8.56	11.10
Wire products.....	2.29	2.75	1.43	1.78	.18	.23	.45	1.98	2.69
Cutlery and edge tools.....	5.91	8.16	4.97	5.86	.42	.04	.48	6.30	8.72
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	4.79	5.48	3.65	4.29	.43	.23	.48	6.72	7.44
Hardware.....	3.91	5.53	2.89	4.18	.48	.14	.40	4.77	5.56
Plumbers' supplies.....	4.35	4.95	2.59	3.34	.36	.10	1.30	3.74	4.33
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.....	7.50	8.14	4.49	5.42	1.14	1.37	.50	10.72	9.61

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November 1943¹

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	November	October	November	October	November	November	November	November	October
Manufacturing—Continued									
Iron and steel and their products—Continued									
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	4.30	5.52	2.99	4.12	0.57	0.28	0.46	3.82	5.04
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	6.97	8.95	4.97	6.54	.72	.76	.22	8.00	9.67
Fabricated structural metal products	6.58	7.68	4.41	5.12	.95	.52	.70	8.24	8.34
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	5.16	4.90	3.34	3.71	.83	.44	.55	5.75	5.71
Forgings, iron and steel	5.12	6.05	3.59	4.09	.51	.44	.58	5.51	6.25
Firearms .60-caliber and under ²	6.36	5.84	3.80	3.92	1.07	.82	.67	—	—
Machinery, except electrical	4.77	5.64	3.03	3.71	.65	.40	.60	4.56	4.96
Engines and turbines ²	4.39	5.06	2.87	3.28	.86	.11	.55	—	—
Agricultural machinery and tractors	4.48	5.15	3.19	3.82	.39	.11	.79	5.97	6.67
Machine tools	4.35	5.49	2.12	2.53	.44	.97	.82	1.95	2.09
Machine-tool accessories ²	5.59	5.21	2.87	3.23	.90	1.13	.69	—	—
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified ²	4.13	5.09	2.43	3.37	.54	.62	—	—	—
Textile machinery	2.79	4.47	1.67	3.20	.23	.34	.55	3.89	3.81
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.20	6.21	3.68	4.48	.69	.16	.67	5.45	5.94
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.74	5.86	3.38	3.69	.68	.25	.43	6.10	5.67
Automobiles	5.40	6.39	3.78	4.43	.74	.22	.66	6.28	7.21
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	5.03	5.92	3.50	4.12	.68	.15	.70	5.35	6.00
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	5.61	6.69	3.96	4.63	.78	.26	.61	6.89	7.61
Nonferrous metals and their products	7.32	7.32	5.09	5.43	.79	.75	.60	7.01	8.05
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium ²	4.66	4.49	3.38	3.23	.40	.27	.61	—	—
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining ²	11.28	11.54	8.21	8.34	1.50	.44	1.13	—	—
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys ²	4.32	5.16	3.28	4.14	.43	.20	.41	—	—
Aluminum and magnesium products ²	7.26	7.04	5.10	5.22	.65	.75	.76	—	—
Lighting equipment	7.03	6.97	4.98	5.49	.62	.90	.44	7.88	6.72
Nonferrous metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium ²	6.74	7.02	4.66	5.17	.91	.50	.58	—	—
Lumber and timber basic products	7.68	7.66	5.11	6.02	.44	1.66	.47	7.26	6.99
Sawmills	7.20	7.33	4.87	5.93	.35	1.51	.47	6.54	6.77
Planing and plywood mills	3.13	7.13	4.72	5.02	.64	2.24	.53	6.97	6.17
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.44	10.49	6.16	7.82	.78	.97	.53	8.40	10.09
Furniture, including mattresses and bed-springs	8.51	11.30	6.20	8.23	.78	.96	.87	8.65	10.22
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.27	5.95	3.90	4.47	.33	.48	.56	5.40	5.78
Glass and glass products	5.92	6.24	4.59	4.45	.43	.40	.50	6.67	7.14
Cement	6.42	4.87	3.86	3.09	.36	1.74	.46	3.37	2.57
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	5.24	7.29	4.11	5.70	.19	.34	.00	5.90	6.65
Pottery and related products	4.75	5.65	3.82	4.78	.39	.10	.44	6.14	6.62
Electrical machinery	4.63	5.13	3.47	3.97	.48	.17	.51	5.27	6.26
Electrical equipment for industrial use ²	4.11	4.37	2.90	3.25	.33	.23	.65	—	—
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs ²	5.48	6.17	4.09	4.87	.75	.20	.44	—	—
Communication equipment, except radios ²	4.10	4.66	3.54	3.92	.27	.01	.28	—	—
Ordnance	7.02	7.06	4.00	4.47	.75	1.71	.56	7.30	8.16
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment ²	5.65	6.66	3.44	4.19	.71	.91	.50	—	—
Ammunition, except small-arms ³	8.66	7.56	4.99	5.25	.87	2.24	.56	—	—
Tanks ²	6.59	8.44	3.30	4.23	.66	2.09	.54	—	—
Sighting and fire-control equipment ²	3.33	3.96	2.14	2.55	.49	.11	.59	—	—
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	6.77	7.73	4.49	5.21	.99	.60	.69	7.17	8.05
Aircraft ²	5.94	6.44	4.20	4.86	.60	.59	.55	—	—
Aircraft parts ²	5.18	5.65	3.40	3.72	.58	.63	.57	—	—
Shipbuilding and repairs ²	8.30	9.69	5.34	6.25	1.54	.57	.58	—	—

See footnotes at end of table.

¹ November
² Publicli
³ Because
 not available

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, November 1943—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Dis-charge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	November	October	November	October	November	November	November	November	October
Manufacturing—Continued									
Textile-mill products.....	5.81	6.75	4.69	5.53	0.41	0.33	0.38	5.97	6.70
Cotton.....	6.40	7.35	5.26	6.12	.47	.29	.38	6.60	7.26
Silk and rayon goods.....	5.99	7.92	4.80	6.27	.33	.56	.30	5.68	7.18
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing.....	4.37	4.94	3.19	3.83	.25	.52	.41	4.19	4.73
Hosiery, full-fashioned.....	3.88	5.02	3.16	4.38	.16	.23	.33	4.50	4.58
Hosiery, seamless.....	6.43	6.54	5.40	5.47	.46	.20	.37	5.88	6.50
Knitted underwear.....	6.52	7.57	5.96	6.64	.27	.14	.15	7.18	7.45
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	4.59	6.04	3.35	4.22	.62	.18	.44	6.20	5.27
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	5.85	6.69	4.77	5.83	.27	.69	.12	5.65	6.63
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats.....	4.85	4.88	3.69	3.96	.09	.96	.11	3.79	4.39
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments.....	5.60	7.07	4.89	6.47	.26	.33	.12	5.75	6.65
Women's clothing, except corsets.....	6.81	7.20	4.97	6.14	.21	1.57	.06	5.07	8.93
Leather and leather products.....	5.17	6.74	4.23	5.43	.26	.24	.44	4.93	5.29
Leather.....	4.75	5.03	3.67	3.82	.21	.49	.38	3.33	3.45
Boots and shoes.....	5.25	7.01	4.34	5.69	.27	.19	.45	5.19	5.58
Food and kindred products.....	9.53	11.12	7.48	8.96	.63	.66	.76	12.76	12.45
Meat products.....	9.71	10.11	7.41	7.52	.80	.59	.91	15.18	10.51
Grain-mill products.....	10.75	11.36	8.36	9.18	.77	.77	.85	11.44	12.65
Paper and allied products.....	6.37	7.28	4.84	5.92	.48	.51	.54	7.21	7.45
Paper and pulp.....	5.17	6.36	3.82	5.01	.40	.34	.61	5.76	6.13
Paper boxes.....	9.39	9.54	7.19	8.10	.65	1.08	.47	10.74	10.58
Chemicals and allied products.....	7.62	6.28	3.89	4.25	.54	2.58	.61	3.77	5.43
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	4.41	5.81	2.90	3.71	.66	.29	.56	5.38	6.41
Rayon and allied products.....	3.03	4.36	2.13	3.21	.18	.23	.49	3.07	4.74
Industrial chemicals (except explosives).....	4.37	4.72	3.03	3.32	.49	.15	.70	4.12	4.57
Explosives ¹	5.63	4.99	3.17	3.47	.73	1.25	.48
Ammunition, small-arms ²	12.80	7.92	5.07	5.02	.63	6.47	.63
Products of petroleum and coal.....	3.05	3.30	2.14	2.18	.22	.16	.53	3.12	3.70
Petroleum refining.....	2.73	3.05	1.89	2.04	.19	.13	.52	2.94	3.51
Rubber products.....	5.45	6.70	4.52	5.50	.37	.10	.46	6.69	7.74
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	4.89	5.16	4.12	4.27	.20	.04	.53	6.55	7.27
Rubber footwear and related products.....	5.24	7.23	4.37	6.24	.41	.14	.32	5.88	6.87
Miscellaneous rubber industries.....	5.74	7.40	4.73	6.03	.45	.13	.43	6.84	8.04
Tobacco manufactures.....	6.17	7.70	5.36	6.89	.30	.21	.30	7.16	8.14
Miscellaneous industries.....	3.98	4.77	2.83	3.46	.41	.22	.52	4.75	4.27
Nonmanufacturing									
Metal mining.....	5.64	7.06	4.00	4.58	.54	.53	.57	5.31	4.75
Iron ore.....	4.68	4.71	2.72	2.63	.23	1.13	.60	3.36	2.45
Copper ore.....	5.23	6.13	4.05	5.17	.43	.24	.51	5.07	5.39
Lead and zinc ore.....	4.50	5.78	3.51	4.19	.39	.18	.42	4.70	5.15
Metal mining, not elsewhere classified (including aluminum ore).....	9.27	13.75	6.17	6.66	1.43	.85	.82	9.03	6.29
Coal mining.....	1.39	2.37	.98	1.52	.02	.08	.31	1.81	1.73
Anthracite.....	2.80	3.54	2.14	2.75	.15	.06	.45	3.16	2.94
Bituminous.....
Public utilities: ³
Telephone.....	2.83	3.61	2.35	3.08	.12	.14	.22	3.14	3.28

¹ November data are preliminary.² Publication of accession rates is restricted in these specific war industries.³ Because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph, data on the telegraph industry are not yet available.

TABLE 3.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees)¹ for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, November 1943²

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Total attrition	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Iron and steel and their products.....	4.19	7.59	2.72	5.70	3.96	7.94
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	3.28	7.30	2.09	5.44	2.75	6.43
Gray-iron castings.....	7.03	8.24	5.05	5.44	7.34	13.17
Malleable-iron castings.....	5.44	6.81	4.31	5.23	5.41	6.33
Steel castings.....	6.79	5.72	5.08	4.65	6.87	7.38
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	4.42	14.96	2.83	5.50	3.28	2.84
Firearms, .60-caliber and under.....	5.08	8.67	2.62	5.93	4.32	6.96
Machinery, except electrical.....	4.32	6.53	2.48	5.20	3.83	7.20
Engines and turbines.....	4.07	5.82	2.46	4.66	4.81	7.20
Machine tools.....	4.14	5.52	1.87	3.40	1.40	4.30
Machine-tool accessories.....	5.15	7.11	2.22	5.06	2.82	6.11
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	3.86	5.54	2.09	4.21	3.18	5.96
General industrial machinery, except pumps.....	4.63	6.06	2.98	5.84	4.64	6.97
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	4.45	6.22	2.98	5.37	5.46	6.30
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	7.08	8.41	4.76	6.52	6.47	8.22
Primary smelting and refining (except aluminum and magnesium).....	4.30	10.36	3.10	7.99	3.70	10.10
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining.....	11.37	10.37	8.33	7.08	11.20	10.10
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys.....	3.99	5.48	2.81	4.96	3.26	5.45
Aluminum and magnesium products.....	6.85	8.93	4.62	7.10	6.47	10.20
Nonferrous metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium.....	5.75	9.14	3.95	6.38	5.92	10.46
Electrical machinery.....	3.67	5.83	2.38	4.84	3.94	6.00
Electrical equipment for industrial use.....	3.39	5.39	1.92	4.62	2.64	5.71
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs.....	3.96	6.60	2.24	5.44	5.91	8.02
Communication equipment, except radios.....	2.66	5.31	2.48	4.42	4.72	6.28
Ordnance.....	5.90	9.43	3.02	6.21	6.35	10.00
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment.....	5.00	7.54	2.41	6.38	4.39	8.87
Ammunition, except small-arms.....	6.98	10.91	3.75	6.65	7.12	10.87
Tanks.....	6.50	6.71	3.08	5.74	8.31	12.29
Sighting and fire-control equipment.....	2.73	4.73	1.47	3.67	2.47	6.02
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	6.25	8.33	3.92	6.26	6.60	8.86
Aircraft.....	4.83	7.67	3.11	5.90	5.31	7.61
Aircraft parts.....	4.39	7.15	2.60	5.42	5.03	8.10
Shipbuilding and repairs.....	7.93	11.58	4.90	8.29	7.96	13.17
Chemicals and allied products.....	6.36	10.49	3.36	5.07	3.44	4.10
Industrial chemicals, except explosives.....	4.20	5.84	2.81	4.22	3.52	7.20
Explosives.....	3.25	9.77	1.71	5.74	1.97	2.60
Ammunition, small-arms.....	11.47	14.55	4.73	5.51	2.53	2.40

¹ These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates and should not be used to estimate employment.

² Data are preliminary.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, December 1943

THE dollar volume of building construction started in urban areas during December 1943 was 8 percent below that for November 1943. New nonresidential construction increased 17 percent, while new residential construction and additions, alterations, and repairs dropped 23 percent and 9 percent, respectively. Federal building contract awards declined 6 percent and total valuations for private building decreased 10 percent. New nonresidential was the only class of Federal building construction to show a rise for the period (44 percent). All classes of private building construction declined from November to December 1943.

Total building construction valuations were one-tenth less in December 1943 than in December 1942, although additions, alterations, and repairs increased by more than one-half. About one-third less new nonresidential construction was started in December 1943 than in December 1942, and new residential construction for this same period decreased 3 percent. Federal construction contracts were 39 percent less in December 1943 than in December 1942, while non-Federal valuations rose by almost one-third, with all classes of work sharing the increase.

Comparison of December 1943 with November 1943 and December 1942

The volume of Federally financed and other building construction in urban areas of the United States in November and December 1943 and December 1942 is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, December 1943

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	December 1943	Percent of change from—		December 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		November 1943	December 1942		November 1943	December 1942
All building construction.....	40,577	-26.8	+17.9	\$102,403	-7.9	-10.9
New residential.....	12,753	-28.0	+3.9	41,975	-23.0	-2.7
New nonresidential.....	4,024	-.9	+16.0	39,378	+17.0	-32.5
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	23,800	-24.8	+27.5	21,140	-8.5	+55.0

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which building permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded during December 1943 and the estimated valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Financing and Dwelling, December 1943*

Type of financing and dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	December 1943	Percent of change from—		December 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		November 1943	December 1942		November 1943	December 1942
All dwellings.....	14,340	-25.5	-12.3	\$41,825	-22.4	-1.3
Privately financed.....	8,462	-10.1	+5.9	27,975	-5.8	+16.6
1-family.....	6,132	-12.6	+11.9	21,176	-7.0	+18.9
2-family ¹	963	-24.1	-8.4	2,853	-28.4	+12.6
Multifamily ²	1,337	+22.9	-6.3	3,946	+22.8	+34.9
Federally financed.....	5,878	-40.3	-29.6	13,850	-42.7	-21.8

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of 1942 and 1943

Permit valuations and contract values reported during 1942 and 1943 are compared in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, 1942 and 1943*

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars) of—					
	All construction			Federal construction		
	1943	1942	Percent of change	1943	1942	Percent of change
All construction.....	1,296,703	2,660,937	-51.3	592,655	1,568,105	-62.2
New residential.....	581,705	915,883	-36.5	206,536	313,859	-34.2
New nonresidential.....	477,028	1,464,064	-67.4	370,169	1,217,197	-69.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	237,970	280,990	-15.3	15,950	37,049	-55.9

The number and valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and Federal contracts awarded during 1942 and 1943 are compared in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Financing and Dwelling, 1942 and 1943*

Type of financing and dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	1943	1942	Percent of change	1943	1942	Percent of change
All dwellings.....	200,745	280,152	-25.1	\$573,000	\$895,018	-36.0
Privately financed.....	119,714	184,892	-35.3	374,261	607,321	-38.4
1-family.....	78,750	138,908	-43.3	260,155	478,070	-45.6
2-family.....	16,234	15,747	+3.1	45,500	42,628	+6.9
Multifamily.....	24,730	30,237	-18.2	68,546	86,623	-20.9
Federally financed.....	90,031	95,260	-5.5	198,739	287,697	-30.9

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.*Construction From Public Funds, December 1943*

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during November and December 1943 and December 1942 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes all other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started in Construction Projects and Shipbuilding Financed From Federal Funds, December 1943*

Source of funds	Contracts awarded and force-account work started (in thousands)		
	December 1943 ¹	November 1943 ²	December 1942 ²
Total.....	\$678,170	\$353,081	\$356,950
War public works.....	3,476	4,518	714
Regular Federal appropriations.....	658,684	318,779	313,947
Federal Public Housing Authority.....	16,010	29,784	42,289

¹ Preliminary; subject to revision.² Revised.*Coverage and Method*

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States, which, by Census definition, includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. The volume of privately financed construction is estimated from the building-permit data received from a large majority of all urban places, and these estimates are combined with data on building construction contracts awarded as furnished by Federal and State agencies. The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at \$42,622,000 in December 1943, \$45,110,000 in November 1943, and \$69,808,000 in December 1942.

The valuation figures represent estimates of construction costs made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by the Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in the urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Reports for December 1943

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was 38,335,000 in December 1943, 43,000 more than in November, but 607,000 below the level of a year ago. Seasonal changes included an increase of 250,000 in trade and a decrease of over 100,000 in construction. There was a decline of over 100,000 in manufacturing.

Industrial and Business Employment

The Bureau of Labor Statistics figures for December 1943 show that employment has dropped, as expected, in industries in which the war production program has been cut back. In addition, losses have occurred in other war industries in which war production schedules required that employment gains should have been made. This was found in widely scattered areas, including some not classified as critical.

The trend of employment in most war industries was one of steady and rapid rise during 1941 and 1942, with slowly increasing or generally stable employment in 1943. Some groups have not yet reached this plateau. The electrical machinery and rubber groups, for instance, are still advancing. In aircraft and, to a less extent, in shipbuilding further increases are anticipated, although a number of plants are at peak levels.

Some other groups of industries have begun to decline by reason of production cut-backs in various types of ordnance matériel. Chief among these, so far as its over-all influence on employment in December is concerned, is the reduction in the production of small-arms ammunition because of the accumulation of large stock piles. This is primarily responsible for the drop from November to December of 34,000 in wage-earner employment in the chemicals group to a level 7,000 below that of December 1942.

Other cut-backs account for the net decrease of 6,000 in the iron and steel group, although employment in this group was still higher than in any month before November. Nonferrous metals showed a drop of 5,000, with employment in December at about the same level as in October.

The decrease of 12,000 in wage-earner employment in the transportation equipment group, which is largely engaged in the manufacture of aircraft, aircraft engines, and ships, reflects some shifts in type of product required and the apparent inability to hire the number of new workers required to maintain employment schedules. Preliminary reports for aircraft firms indicate that separations were no greater in December than in November, but the rate of accessions decreased.

Inclement weather resulted in the usual seasonal drop of 5,000 wage earners in lumber and a small decrease in iron mining. Seasonal factors in the beet-sugar and canning industries are reflected in the decline of 21,000 wage earners in the food group.

Estimates of the number of wage earners, and indexes of wage-earner employment, are given in table 1, by industry group.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group¹

[Subject to revision]

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)				Wage earner indexes (1939=100)	
	December 1943 ²	November 1943	October 1943	December 1942	December 1943 ²	November 1943
All manufacturing.....	13,899	13,986	13,965	13,474	169.7	170.7
Durable goods.....	8,412	8,436	8,389	7,780	233.0	233.6
Nondurable goods.....	5,487	5,550	5,576	5,694	119.8	121.2
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,738	1,744	1,731	1,676	175.3	175.9
Electrical machinery.....	745	742	734	649	267.3	286.4
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,266	1,283	1,253	1,190	239.6	239.0
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,312	2,324	2,324	1,999	1456.6	1464.5
Automobiles.....	764	762	751	613	189.9	189.5
Nondurable metals and their products.....	421	426	422	405	183.6	185.6
Lumber and timber basic products.....	458	463	463	515	108.9	110.1
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	359	361	359	365	109.5	110.0
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	349	351	350	368	119.0	119.5
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,189	1,190	1,187	1,287	104.0	104.0
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	816	823	825	886	103.4	104.2
Leather and leather products.....	313	315	314	364	90.3	90.9
Food.....	992	1,013	1,045	1,018	116.0	118.5
Tobacco manufactures.....	90	90	89	90	96.6	96.3
Paper and allied products.....	317	316	314	309	119.6	119.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	343	341	335	342	104.6	103.9
Chemical and allied products.....	605	729	740	702	241.1	253.0
Products of petroleum and coal.....	126	126	126	124	118.7	119.0
Rubber products.....	205	199	195	180	169.1	164.9
Miscellaneous industries.....	401	408	406	383	264.0	166.7

¹The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and are not comparable with data shown in previous reports for December 1942 and prior months. Estimates and indexes for the period January 1939 to November 1942 comparable with the data in the above table are available upon request.

²Preliminary data for December 1943.

Public Employment

After dropping below the 3,000,000 mark from August through November, employment in the Federal executive service reached its highest point in December 1943—3,206,000. An estimated 220,000 temporary employees hired by the Post Office Department for the Christmas rush was responsible for this peak. Exclusive of these workers, employment in the Federal executive service showed a decline in December of 9,000, which reflected declines in the War Department (10,000), Agriculture Department (1,100), and TVA (1,000), and smaller declines in several of the other agencies, partially offset by increases in the Navy Department (1,500), OPA (600), and smaller increases in several agencies. During the year 1943, Federal employment, exclusive of temporary postal employees, increased 154,000. The 292,000 increase shown in the accompanying table is misleading, since the figure of 82,000 temporary postal employees

included in December 1942 represents a full-time equivalent, whereas a figure which would be comparable with the total of 220,000 workers added this year would be approximately 180,000.

Employment on construction and shipbuilding and repair projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds declined 68,900 during the month ending December 15, 1943. The decline affected all types of projects—public housing, 5,000; war public works, 100; and all other projects, including shipbuilding and repair projects, as well as non-residential building and airport construction, reclamation, and river, harbor, and flood control, 41,100. The sharp drop of 22,700 employees on the construction of war production facilities was the result of completions and of the stoppage of work on certain facilities which are no longer deemed essential because of the successful production records of those now in operation.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative and judicial services and for force-account employees in the executive service are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics; data for other executive-service employees are reported through the Civil Service Commission. The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction projects financed wholly or partially by Federal funds directly from the contractors and subcontractors.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data for the regular Federal services and for construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds*

[Subject to revision]

Service or program	Employment			Pay rolls		
	December 1943	November 1943	December 1942	December 1943	November 1943	December 1942
Regular Federal services:						
Executive ¹	3,206,121	2,995,439	3,213,874	\$600,232,000	\$580,477,000	\$474,085,000
War agencies ²	2,168,366	2,176,534	2,049,403	413,692,000	414,855,000	319,212,000
Other agencies.....	1,037,755	818,905	864,471	186,540,000	165,624,000	154,872,000
Judicial.....	2,605	2,635	2,636	767,539	774,028	710,946
Legislative.....	6,133	6,116	6,391	1,577,172	1,489,631	1,487,857
Construction and shipbuilding and repair projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations ³	1,863,800	1,904,900	2,420,000	482,649,000	503,649,000	506,555,000
War.....	1,818,400	1,856,500	2,332,700	473,167,000	493,557,000	490,932,000
Other.....	45,400	48,400	87,300	9,482,000	10,092,000	15,623,000
Public housing.....	48,400	53,400	76,500	9,879,000	10,920,000	11,756,000
War public works.....	15,000	15,100	11,100	2,275,000	2,295,000	1,541,000
Financed by RFC.....	85,700	108,400	230,000	20,358,000	25,746,000	42,258,000
War.....	55,700	108,400	201,900	20,358,000	25,746,000	42,078,000
Other.....	0	0	1,100	0	0	181,600

¹ Includes employees in U. S. navy yards and on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects. Data for December 1942 are not strictly comparable with the series starting June 1943 because of the inclusion of employees on terminal leave in the earlier figure, and the inclusion beginning June 1943 of approximately 7,000 employees of the War Shipping Administration who were previously unreported; a change in the method of reporting temporary substitutes of the Post Office Department starting November 1943 accounts for an increase of approximately 25,000 employees. Pay rolls for November and December 1943 are estimated.

² Includes an estimated 220,000 temporary postal employees hired for the Christmas rush.

³ Includes 81,902 full-time equivalent temporary postal employees hired for the Christmas rush.

⁴ Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Foreign Economic Administration, and the Petroleum Administration for War.

⁵ Includes ship construction and repair in U. S. navy yards and the Federally financed part thereof in private shipyards.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, November 1943

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of civil employees in nonagricultural establishments by major groups are given in table 1. With the exception of the trade and finance-service-miscellaneous groups, they are not comparable with estimates published in the September 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable figures for the months from January 1939 to July 1942 are given in the October 1942 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The estimates are based on reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, on data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, and the Bureau of the Census. They do not include military personnel, emergency employment (such as WPA, NYA, and CCC), proprietors, self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, or domestics.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are given each month in the Bureau of Labor Statistics mimeographed release on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division

Industry division	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	November 1943	October 1943	September 1943	November 1942
Total estimated employment ¹	38,292	38,273	38,227	38,533
Manufacturing.....	16,229	16,205	16,179	15,434
Mining.....	809	819	825	894
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction.....	871	974	1,066	1,896
Transportation and public utilities.....	3,687	3,705	3,708	3,520
Trade.....	6,560	6,419	6,285	6,771
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.....	4,272	4,300	4,334	4,295
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction.....	5,855	5,851	5,830	5,723

¹ Estimates exclude proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, public emergency employees, and personnel in the armed forces.

² Preliminary.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 15 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and non-manufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage

earnings only, but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 154 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and, about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 154 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, for September, October, and November 1943, and for November 1942, are presented in tables 3 and 5.

The revised manufacturing indexes and aggregates in tables 2 and 3 are not comparable with the indexes published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review, as a result of changes in definitions, a change in the index base period, and adjustments in levels. Revised figures for the major manufacturing groups are available in mimeographed form by months from January 1939 through November 1942 and for individual manufacturing industries from January 1939 through August 1942.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables, since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustment to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group will not in general add to the total estimate for that group.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

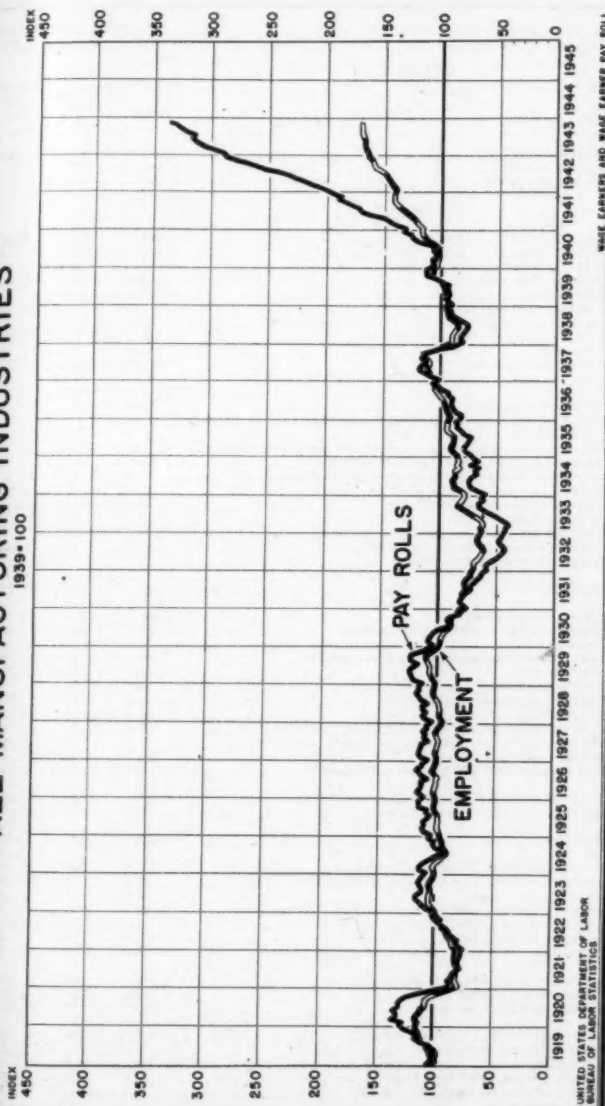


TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	November 1943	October 1943	September 1943	November 1942
All manufacturing.....	13,986	13,965	13,935	13,297
Durable goods.....	8,436	8,389	8,319	7,897
Nondurable goods.....	5,550	5,576	5,616	5,400
<i>Durable goods</i>				
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,744	1,731	1,721	1,643
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	507.8	509.6	513.7	518.3
Gray-iron and semi-steel castings.....	78.3	78.2	78.6	82.0
Malleable-iron castings.....	25.8	25.7	25.7	27.0
Steel castings.....	80.3	81.0	81.6	86.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	15.5	15.3	15.2	16.1
Tin cans and other tinware ³	33.3	34.0	33.1	33.8
Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	35.5	35.5	35.4	34.3
Wirework.....	34.4	33.4	32.9	31.5
Cutlery and edge tools.....	22.4	22.3	21.6	20.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	27.9	27.5	27.0	26.6
Hardware.....	47.5	46.6	45.5	41.7
Plumbers' supplies.....	23.8	23.3	23.2	21.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	60.9	59.1	57.2	56.8
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	59.9	59.7	59.2	58.6
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	94.5	93.4	91.5	75.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	73.8	72.4	71.7	67.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	14.1	13.7	13.2	10.8
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	30.0	29.7	29.6	26.4
Forgings, iron and steel.....	40.6	40.1	40.0	37.9
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted.....	26.4	26.5	26.7	21.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	49.2	49.0	48.8	46.0
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	8.5	8.7	8.5	6.7
Electrical machinery.....	742	734	725	690
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,263	1,255	1,248	1,180
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	500.5	498.6	496.5	487.3
Tractors.....	67.5	56.3	58.3	47.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	42.0	41.1	40.4	38.6
Machine tools.....	95.0	97.4	100.9	121.0
Textile machinery.....	29.0	28.8	28.2	28.3
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	81.4	79.0	78.3	69.0
Typewriters.....	13.0	12.2	11.6	11.1
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	36.4	36.3	35.8	31.5
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic.....	14.8	14.7	14.5	12.6
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	10.7	10.7	10.7	11.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	60.3	58.4	56.4	49.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,324	2,324	2,299	1,900
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.....	10.4	10.3	9.9	9.7
Automobiles.....	762	751	734	591
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	426	422	417	398
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	47.6	46.9	46.8	46.4
Clocks and watches.....	23.4	24.9	25.1	25.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	15.1	15.2	15.3	14.7
Silverware and plated ware.....	11.9	11.9	11.0	11.3
Lighting equipment.....	26.9	26.6	25.5	21.7
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified.....	29.2	29.2	28.2	26.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	463	463	467	436
Sawmills and logging camps.....	252.5	253.4	256.1	266.9
Planing and plywood mills.....	79.6	78.9	78.7	87.3
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	361	359	356	360
Mattresses and bedsprings.....	19.2	19.4	19.3	18.9
Furniture.....	169.3	168.0	167.0	166.4
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	29.0	29.3	29.1	31.7
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	12.0	11.7	11.6	11.9
Wood preserving.....	10.2	10.0	10.0	11.7
Wood, turned and shaped.....	22.2	21.9	21.5	20.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries—Con.

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	November 1943	October 1943	September 1943	November 1942
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	351	350	352	368
Glass and glassware.....	91.2	89.8	89.4	81.9
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	11.0	10.8	10.8	11.8
Cement.....	21.7	22.4	22.8	29.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	46.3	46.9	48.0	60.1
Pottery and related products.....	42.4	42.1	42.2	45.7
Gypsum.....	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.7
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	10.5	10.8	11.1	11.3
Lime.....	8.9	8.9	9.2	9.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	12.2	12.3	12.3	13.5
Abrasives.....	24.2	24.1	23.9	19.7
Asbestos products.....	22.2	22.0	21.6	21.6
<i>Nondurable goods</i>				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,190	1,187	1,185	1,277
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	473.6	472.1	471.0	505.9
Cotton smallwares.....	15.4	15.7	15.7	17.8
Silk and rayon goods.....	94.4	93.8	93.9	90.1
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	160.8	160.7	160.3	176.3
Hosiery.....	113.5	113.5	113.2	124.3
Knitted cloth.....	11.5	11.6	11.5	11.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	32.0	32.1	31.9	30.9
Knitted underwear.....	39.7	39.7	39.4	44.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	65.0	64.7	65.2	71.2
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	21.1	21.3	21.1	23.4
Hats, fur-felt.....	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.5
Leather goods, except felts.....	3.6	3.6	3.6	4.0
Cordage and twine.....	16.8	16.7	16.4	16.2
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	823	825	822	887
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	221.6	222.2	221.2	235.4
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	56.4	56.4	56.5	65.7
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	12.8	12.7	12.8	13.4
Work shirts.....	17.8	17.8	17.8	18.5
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	231.0	232.2	231.2	248.4
Corsets and allied garments.....	16.5	16.5	16.1	17.6
Millinery.....	17.7	18.8	19.3	17.4
Handkerchiefs.....	3.5	3.5	3.6	4.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads ¹	16.4	16.2	15.9	17.9
Home furnishings, other than curtains, etc. ¹	13.7	13.7	13.4	17.4
Textile bags.....	15.0	14.4	13.9	16.1
Leather and leather products.....	315	314	315	363
Leather.....	40.9	41.6	41.9	49.0
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	16.5	16.3	16.4	18.7
Boots and shoes.....	177.9	177.0	178.4	203.5
Leather gloves and mittens.....	14.1	14.0	13.6	14.1
Trunks and suitcases.....	12.7	12.2	12.1	16.6
Food.....	1,013	1,045	1,102	1,038
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	164.3	159.3	159.3	175.7
Butter.....	20.7	21.6	22.4	21.6
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	12.2	12.8	13.4	12.2
Ice cream.....	13.9	14.7	15.6	15.0
Flour.....	30.0	29.8	28.9	26.0
Feeds, prepared.....	21.8	21.4	21.4	20.9
Cereal preparations.....	9.8	10.1	10.1	9.7
Baking.....	263.7	257.6	250.5	263.1
Sugar refining, cane.....	14.9	14.5	14.7	12.4
Sugar, beet.....	20.3	17.4	7.7	26.4
Confectionery.....	60.3	57.3	53.5	64.8
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	27.5	28.2	29.7	24.2
Malt liquors.....	47.3	48.0	48.0	41.7
Canning and preserving.....	124.2	170.9	247.6	136.3
Tobacco manufactures.....	90	89	88	100
Cigarettes.....	35.7	35.1	34.5	35.4
Cigars.....	39.9	39.9	40.1	49.2
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	8.5	8.4	8.3	8.7

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹—Con.

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	November 1943	October 1943	September 1943	November 1942
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>				
Paper and allied products.....	316	314	311	304
Paper and pulp.....	149.4	148.5	148.5	149.2
Paper goods, other.....	47.9	47.8	47.3	46.7
Envelopes.....	10.4	10.2	10.2	9.6
Paper bags.....	12.9	12.5	12.3	11.6
Paper boxes.....	86.3	85.3	83.0	78.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	341	335	330	320
Newspapers and periodicals.....	113.2	112.6	112.4	110.9
Printing, book and job.....	136.0	132.7	128.8	130.2
Lithographing.....	25.1	24.9	25.3	24.0
Bookbinding.....	30.2	29.7	29.0	27.4
Chemicals and allied products.....	729	740	738	690
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	29.8	29.7	29.5	28.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	48.6	47.2	46.4	46.0
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	11.8	11.2	10.6	10.5
Soap.....	13.5	13.3	13.2	13.6
Rayon and allied products.....	51.6	53.0	52.4	50.8
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	120.9	120.4	119.0	111.1
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.3
Cottonseed oil.....	22.3	21.9	20.3	22.0
Fertilizers.....	21.2	20.1	19.8	19.6
Products of petroleum and coal.....	126	126	126	126
Petroleum refining.....	82.4	82.4	82.3	77.9
Coke and byproducts.....	23.5	23.8	24.0	26.1
Paving materials.....	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.9
Roofing materials.....	9.8	9.7	9.7	10.2
Rubber products.....	199	195	195	171
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	92.1	90.1	91.3	78.0
Rubber boots and shoes.....	21.6	21.2	21.4	20.9
Rubber goods, other.....	76.0	74.3	72.7	67.7
Miscellaneous industries.....	408	406	404	371
Photographic apparatus.....	30.4	30.4	30.7	28.5
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	10.8	10.7	10.4	7.6
Games, toys, and dolls.....	16.9	16.4	15.7	14.9
Buttons.....	10.2	10.1	10.1	12.1

¹ Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1942. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage earners in war industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine-tool accessories; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

³ Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Tin cans and other tinware.—January to June 1943 wage earners to 28.1, 29.1, 29.4, 30.1, 31.1, and 33.0.
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.—November 1942, A—11 and May 1943 wage earners to 17.9, 18.6, and 17.9.

Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.—September 1942 to April 1943 wage earners to 16.3, 17.0, 17.4, 17.5, 16.9, 16.6, 16.5, and 15.5. August 1943 wage earners to 14.1.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average = 100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment ³				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942
All manufacturing	170.7	170.5	170.1	161.9	336.2	332.7	328.0	280.4
Durable goods	233.6	232.3	230.4	210.4	473.9	468.8	460.7	382.8
Nondurable goods	121.2	121.7	122.6	123.8	201.4	199.6	198.3	180.3
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products	175.9	174.6	173.6	165.7	320.1	318.6	312.8	270.1
Blot furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	130.7	131.2	131.7	133.4	226.8	232.6	232.7	204.1
Gray-iron and semisteel castings ⁴	134.0	133.9	134.6	148.9	257.0	256.4	249.5	249.6
Malleable-iron castings	143.2	142.2	142.5	149.7	284.6	286.5	275.4	246.5
Steel castings	267.0	269.1	271.2	269.0	486.0	482.8	475.8	445.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	93.7	92.6	91.7	121.9	165.2	167.6	165.0	205.7
Tin cans and other tinware ⁵	104.9	107.0	110.6	90.5	169.0	175.1	177.9	127.9
Wire drawn from purchased rods	161.6	161.6	161.5	156.0	262.3	260.0	262.8	227.3
Wirework	113.3	109.9	108.2	103.7	222.2	215.7	203.3	178.4
Cutlery and edge tools	145.1	144.6	140.0	133.8	296.7	293.8	282.0	251.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	182.4	179.4	176.4	173.6	347.9	342.5	324.6	307.2
Hardware	133.2	130.6	127.7	117.0	268.6	265.5	254.0	210.8
Plumbers' supplies	96.5	94.5	94.0	85.8	172.1	160.7	156.8	132.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	132.0	128.0	124.0	110.1	239.1	231.7	219.2	170.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	197.6	197.0	195.3	183.4	365.2	365.1	363.6	319.3
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	170.1	168.2	164.6	135.7	339.9	330.9	314.5	231.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	207.7	203.7	201.8	190.4	394.7	384.3	372.1	313.9
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	182.6	177.6	170.7	140.1	337.2	327.0	322.2	227.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	209.4	207.7	206.8	184.7	408.6	396.7	386.2	307.2
Forgings, iron and steel	264.1	260.8	260.0	246.6	531.2	514.2	488.6	442.3
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	315.3	316.6	319.6	255.4	570.3	564.3	567.7	460.7
Screw-machine products and wood screws	290.5	289.4	288.5	289.3	569.5	560.7	549.0	506.6
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	139.7	142.5	140.2	110.6	288.9	272.0	263.8	183.9
Electrical machinery	286.4	283.4	279.8	243.0	502.2	494.7	487.7	402.8
Machinery, except electrical	239.0	237.6	236.2	221.0	445.7	441.4	435.2	381.5
Machinery and machine-shop products	247.4	246.4	244.9	226.0	456.9	447.4	440.5	381.9
Tractors	183.8	180.2	176.7	150.8	288.0	279.2	269.5	211.9
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	150.9	147.9	145.4	106.2	293.8	288.4	283.8	171.6
Machine tools	290.3	286.0	275.5	230.3	541.3	535.8	525.3	445.3
Textile machinery	132.2	131.3	128.7	133.9	238.7	237.8	227.4	219.9
Pumps and pumping equipment	336.0	325.9	322.9	284.7	695.1	694.2	678.2	556.3
Typewriters	79.9	75.5	71.7	68.3	160.2	151.1	143.4	120.4
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	184.9	184.7	181.8	159.9	374.4	377.9	366.1	279.5
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	198.8	197.5	193.9	141.6	339.4	340.5	335.9	217.4
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	136.7	137.1	136.7	140.6	294.2	294.0	300.2	264.3
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	171.4	166.1	160.6	123.1	306.0	296.2	288.3	189.6
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1464.5	1464.3	1448.6	1202.8	3018.6	2947.6	2933.1	2275.9
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	149.5	147.7	142.5	131.9	265.2	269.0	252.1	218.8
Automobiles	189.5	186.7	182.5	147.1	356.2	350.5	339.3	261.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	185.6	184.3	181.8	173.5	343.9	338.2	336.8	292.2
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	172.3	169.7	169.2	146.4	305.9	300.9	304.7	227.5
Clocks and watches	125.0	122.6	123.9	127.8	248.5	241.9	242.3	231.5
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	104.9	105.4	105.6	115.8	163.8	159.1	158.7	170.2
Silverware and plated ware	98.2	97.8	95.8	93.2	174.0	169.8	161.1	145.8
Lighting equipment	131.4	130.0	124.7	105.8	233.2	226.5	223.0	182.9
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	155.7	155.6	150.2	154.3	292.9	282.0	273.6	251.2
Lumber and timber basic products	110.1	110.2	111.0	125.1	197.4	200.9	197.7	188.7
Sawmills and logging camps	87.7	88.0	88.9	100.6	160.2	163.8	162.1	152.8
Planing and plywood mills	109.5	108.6	108.3	120.5	180.9	181.8	175.7	173.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	110.0	109.4	108.6	110.5	191.1	191.0	183.2	165.0
Mattresses and bedsprings	104.6	105.6	105.1	86.7	174.0	175.4	168.9	118.8
Furniture	106.3	105.5	104.9	105.8	184.8	184.4	176.7	158.2
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	114.6	115.6	114.7	125.2	206.6	212.4	205.3	199.3
Caskets and other morticians' goods	96.1	94.2	93.2	95.7	155.7	150.3	143.2	140.6
Wood preserving	90.8	89.2	88.7	104.1	177.0	181.3	180.6	169.8
Wood, turned and shaped	101.0	99.4	98.0	106.6	172.6	169.4	161.1	161.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>								
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	119.5	119.3	119.8	125.3	195.2	194.0	188.5	178.2
Glass and glassware.....	130.7	128.6	128.1	117.3	207.5	202.1	193.3	181.1
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	110.1	107.9	107.5	117.9	179.5	169.4	160.5	160.4
Cement.....	91.1	94.1	95.7	123.4	134.1	141.0	139.9	190.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	81.5	82.5	84.5	105.9	127.0	129.9	128.3	151.9
Pottery and related products.....	128.2	127.3	127.5	138.1	195.0	192.5	185.8	167.8
Gypsum.....	93.5	91.2	90.2	94.2	165.1	159.9	147.8	144.9
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	129.4	132.5	136.7	139.6	222.8	230.0	232.2	206.2
Lime.....	94.1	94.4	96.8	103.0	171.8	171.3	172.0	162.3
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	66.1	66.5	66.6	72.9	93.8	94.9	96.5	67.9
Abrasives.....	312.4	311.3	308.8	254.8	509.5	501.0	494.4	262.6
Asbestos products.....	139.6	138.3	135.9	135.9	266.5	262.7	260.2	286.6
<i>Nondurable goods</i>								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	104.0	103.8	103.6	111.7	176.2	174.4	172.0	175.4
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	119.6	119.2	118.9	127.7	207.4	205.1	204.8	212.9
Cotton smallwares.....	115.4	117.7	118.0	133.7	195.7	203.3	195.6	219.3
Silk and rayon goods.....	78.7	78.3	78.3	82.7	137.4	136.1	131.5	131.3
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	107.8	107.7	107.4	118.1	198.6	197.6	194.9	201.0
Hosiery.....	71.4	71.3	71.2	78.1	110.3	109.2	105.0	104.4
Knitted cloth.....	105.8	106.0	105.0	107.0	174.9	174.2	169.0	157.0
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	113.9	114.3	113.5	109.8	200.9	195.5	190.5	164.4
Knitted underwear.....	103.1	103.0	102.3	115.8	180.0	176.7	171.0	179.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	97.3	96.8	97.4	106.5	153.5	152.4	150.6	157.9
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	82.5	83.3	82.5	91.6	137.5	135.9	131.0	136.6
Hats, fur-felt.....	68.4	68.5	68.3	65.6	124.3	120.5	118.7	97.9
Jute goods, except felts.....	101.0	101.6	101.3	112.4	186.4	183.2	181.6	196.0
Cordage and twine.....	139.3	138.3	135.8	133.9	242.7	237.7	231.3	206.9
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	104.2	104.6	104.1	112.3	165.6	164.1	163.4	152.7
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	101.4	101.6	101.1	107.6	161.8	158.2	153.8	144.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	80.0	80.1	80.2	93.3	135.2	134.2	129.9	142.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	79.3	78.5	79.2	83.2	149.7	145.7	140.5	123.2
Work shirts.....	132.6	132.4	132.2	137.6	221.8	229.6	223.5	222.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	85.0	85.5	85.1	91.4	132.6	132.1	126.1	121.1
Corsets and allied garments.....	87.8	87.7	85.8	94.0	146.2	142.9	139.6	133.6
Millinery.....	73.0	77.2	79.5	71.6	92.3	105.5	113.7	75.7
Handkerchiefs.....	73.2	73.2	73.3	87.9	125.8	126.5	116.5	133.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads ³	97.1	96.1	94.2	105.7	175.7	167.8	163.3	158.4
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc. ³	129.0	129.1	126.4	163.6	242.5	235.7	229.4	254.0
Textile bags.....	125.1	130.0	116.3	134.5	196.2	199.3	179.2	168.1
Leather and leather products.....	90.9	90.5	90.8	104.7	146.1	147.2	143.1	153.4
Leather.....	86.5	87.9	88.6	103.8	134.4	135.1	133.2	142.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	87.5	86.5	86.8	99.1	131.7	131.7	129.5	136.0
Boots and shoes.....	81.6	81.2	81.8	93.4	133.1	129.8	131.1	137.4
Leather gloves and mittens.....	140.9	139.8	136.6	140.8	236.8	230.1	215.5	196.5
Trunks and suitcases.....	152.3	146.6	145.0	199.6	342.3	326.0	315.3	275.5
Food.....	118.5	122.3	129.0	121.5	186.0	182.2	184.8	180.5
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	136.4	132.2	132.2	145.8	232.3	201.2	192.4	181.3
Butter.....	115.5	120.6	124.9	120.2	167.4	175.1	180.3	156.7
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	125.6	132.4	138.0	126.0	188.6	196.2	206.1	167.7
Ice cream.....	88.6	93.6	99.4	95.5	118.0	123.1	125.2	119.1
Feeds, prepared.....	121.2	120.3	116.6	104.9	186.4	182.3	179.5	168.4
Cereal preparations.....	131.7	135.3	135.3	130.4	226.7	226.3	227.1	180.0
Baking.....	111.3	111.7	108.6	114.1	163.6	159.0	155.2	144.0
Sugar refining, cane.....	105.4	102.7	104.1	87.6	167.9	160.4	167.2	160.7
Sugar, beet.....	194.6	166.9	73.6	253.4	283.0	206.2	100.5	279.7
Confectionery.....	121.1	115.3	107.6	130.3	188.6	178.1	164.3	182.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	129.2	132.6	139.5	113.9	161.1	161.2	172.3	127.8
Malt liquors.....	131.0	133.0	132.9	115.5	180.8	183.7	186.5	137.4
Canning and preserving.....	92.4	127.1	184.2	101.3	163.6	224.2	304.4	181.8
Tobacco manufactures.....	96.3	95.5	94.8	106.8	162.5	160.2	154.1	137.4
Cigarettes.....	130.2	128.1	125.6	129.2	196.3	190.8	178.5	178.6
Cigars.....	78.4	78.3	78.8	96.7	141.2	141.4	138.5	146.2
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	93.2	92.0	90.5	94.4	142.2	140.0	132.1	133.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Paper and allied products.....	119.3	118.2	117.1	114.7	185.1	183.2	176.7	163.5
Paper and pulp.....	108.7	108.0	108.0	109.3	174.9	174.1	168.4	161.1
Paper goods, other.....	127.3	126.9	125.6	124.2	187.4	187.4	179.4	165.6
Envelopes.....	119.9	117.7	117.7	113.3	176.6	172.3	170.1	146.5
Paper bags.....	116.4	112.5	111.0	106.8	191.6	180.6	175.0	156.1
Paper boxes.....	124.8	123.3	120.0	110.7	189.2	185.1	177.4	154.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	103.9	102.3	100.7	103.1	133.6	131.0	128.9	122.4
Newspapers and periodicals.....	95.4	94.9	94.7	98.5	115.2	114.4	114.5	111.3
Printing, book and job.....	107.6	105.0	102.0	105.4	141.7	138.0	133.1	127.5
Lithographing.....	96.4	95.6	97.3	95.7	130.7	125.0	126.1	115.3
Bookbinding.....	117.2	115.1	112.4	106.2	187.9	183.1	179.8	164.1
Chemical and allied products.....	253.0	256.9	256.1	240.3	428.6	438.9	438.4	365.3
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	106.0	105.7	104.8	102.8	160.8	160.0	156.2	134.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	177.4	172.2	169.2	148.9	288.4	251.4	242.2	189.9
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	114.0	107.6	102.4	101.4	162.1	151.6	144.2	128.9
Soap.....	92.8	98.0	97.4	101.7	157.5	151.0	156.3	133.9
Rayon and allied products.....	107.0	106.9	108.5	105.1	166.4	168.5	170.3	141.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	173.8	173.1	171.1	159.7	291.9	290.4	285.5	235.8
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	159.8	159.1	159.4	158.4	275.8	272.2	266.3	229.8
Cottonseed oil ³	146.6	144.2	133.6	150.7	281.3	274.2	243.5	243.1
Fertilizers.....	113.2	107.2	105.3	104.4	222.9	216.3	214.2	164.2
Products of petroleum and coal.....	119.0	119.3	119.0	117.8	197.2	197.7	195.0	165.4
Petroleum refining.....	113.1	113.2	113.0	107.0	186.6	185.5	182.4	150.9
Coke and byproducts.....	108.3	109.7	110.5	120.1	175.8	182.5	187.1	165.1
Paving materials.....	81.6	79.0	70.9	77.3	140.1	146.1	122.8	123.2
Roofing materials.....	122.2	120.6	120.3	130.3	218.6	213.7	207.8	204.8
Rubber products.....	164.9	161.3	161.2	143.8	287.7	278.0	273.4	214.3
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	170.1	166.4	168.6	141.9	289.0	279.3	277.2	205.3
Rubber boots and shoes.....	145.7	143.1	144.1	140.4	251.5	243.6	246.8	221.9
Rubber goods, other.....	146.8	143.5	140.4	130.9	256.7	247.8	238.7	196.4
Miscellaneous industries.....	166.7	166.0	165.1	151.7	307.6	301.3	297.1	247.6
Photographic apparatus.....	175.8	176.1	177.6	147.8	283.6	278.2	270.9	222.5
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	141.6	141.1	137.1	100.0	266.4	266.8	260.9	166.8
Games, toys, and dolls.....	90.6	88.0	84.1	80.0	155.8	158.0	141.7	128.9
Restaurants.....	92.6	92.2	92.2	109.9	173.9	169.4	164.4	174.3

¹ Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and are not comparable with data in issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine-tool accessories; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

³ Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Graphite and semisolid castings—June 1943 pay-roll index to 256.8.
Tires and other tireware—January to June 1943 employment indexes to 88.6, 91.5, 92.4, 94.8, 97.8, and 100.8; pay-roll indexes to 132.2, 137.6, 141.8, 148.8, 155.9, and 166.2.
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads—November 1942, April and May 1943 employment indexes to 105.7, 108.8, and 105.8; September 1942 to May 1943 pay-roll indexes to 132.6, 150.2, 158.4, 165.1, 162.5, 163.6, 171.8, 180.8, and 168.9.

Household furnishings, other than curtains, etc.—September 1942 to April 1943 employment indexes to 153.2, 159.8, 164.6, 164.3, 159.0, 155.1, and 145.6; pay-roll indexes to 224.6, 246.2, 254.3, 261.3, 260.0, 249.9, 253.1, and 250.2.
August 1943 employment and pay-roll indexes to 132.5 and 219.6.

Cottonseed oil—June and August 1943 pay-roll indexes to 140.0 and 144.6.

TABLE 4.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	November 1943	October 1943	September 1943	November 1942
Anthracite mining.....	68.7	69.6	70.0	70.0
Bituminous-coal mining.....	268	373	374	421
Metal mining.....	91.6	93.8	95.7	102.7
Iron.....	30.2	31.7	32.5	32.1
Copper.....	30.6	31.0	31.4	30.1
Lead and zinc.....	18.8	18.8	18.6	18.5
Gold and silver.....	6.3	6.3	6.5	10.7
Miscellaneous metal mining.....	5.7	6.0	6.5	7.3
Electric light and power ¹	206	207	209	220
Street railways and busses ¹	230	229	229	213
Hotels (year-round) ²	351	351	348	334
Power laundries.....	247	249	250	269
Dyeing and cleaning.....	78.2	81.0	80.1	80.2
Class I steam railroads ³	1,364	1,368	1,374	1,317

¹ Data back to 1939 are available upon request.² Data include salaried personnel.³ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

(1939 average=100) ¹

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1942
Coal mining:								
Anthracite.....	82.9	84.0	84.5	91.8	90.4	146.5	144.2	125.6
Bituminous.....	99.4	100.6	101.0	113.7	141.6	198.0	202.4	177.7
Metal mining.....	103.9	106.3	108.5	116.3	161.6	170.2	171.6	167.5
Iron.....	150.4	158.0	161.3	160.1	224.2	263.1	260.5	236.1
Copper.....	128.7	129.9	131.7	139.0	215.8	216.3	219.3	210.3
Lead and zinc.....	120.7	120.7	121.1	125.7	211.1	209.9	209.8	201.1
Gold and silver.....	25.3	25.3	26.3	43.0	32.9	33.7	34.1	50.7
Miscellaneous.....	142.8	151.7	164.3	179.2	241.6	241.7	266.5	273.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	91.3	94.1	95.6	109.5	161.2	169.4	168.0	172.5
Crude-petroleum production ²	80.6	80.9	81.7	83.6	124.1	122.1	124.4	104.3
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph ³	84.5	84.9	85.5	91.3	112.2	111.8	111.4	108.9
Electric light and power.....	118.6	118.1	118.0	110.0	161.4	158.9	157.6	146.7
Street railways and busses.....								
Wholesale trade.....	95.5	94.2	93.9	100.1	131.9	129.5	127.9	126.8
Retail trade.....	104.2	100.6	97.4	106.6	127.3	123.3	119.9	121.6
Food.....	107.4	107.2	104.1	111.4	132.1	130.4	128.7	128.8
General merchandise.....	130.8	119.2	110.6	132.5	150.6	138.7	130.5	141.6
Apparel.....	117.8	114.1	108.4	114.7	146.9	142.0	133.6	131.0
Furniture and housefurnishings.....	67.3	66.4	65.5	76.7	89.1	86.9	85.3	94.0
Automotive.....	65.1	63.2	62.5	63.5	90.4	88.0	85.1	86.6
Lumber and building materials.....	92.0	92.5	92.2	94.3	126.4	128.1	126.2	128.4
Hotels (year-round) ⁴	106.8	108.9	108.0	103.7	148.8	147.2	143.7	128.0
Power laundries.....	109.4	110.2	110.5	119.2	150.3	149.1	146.2	142.7
Dyeing and cleaning.....	115.9	120.0	118.7	118.8	166.9	173.4	170.6	147.1
Class I steam railroads ⁵	138.2	138.6	139.2	133.3	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Water transportation ⁷	176.9	176.7	170.3	98.3	394.2	393.6	384.4	225.0

¹ Mimeographed report showing revised data (1939=100) January 1939-December 1942 for each industry available on request.² Does not include well drilling or rig building.³ Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.⁴ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included. Data include salaried personnel.⁵ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.⁶ Not available.⁷ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for September, October, and November 1943, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. The average weekly earnings for individual industries are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are now computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings, and are not comparable with figures published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Formerly, weekly earnings for the groups were computed by dividing total weekly pay roll by total employment, without any formal weighting of figures for the component industries.

Austria

Canada

November
1942

76.0

421

102.7

32.2

32.1

18.5

16.7

7.2

226

213

334

269

86.2

1,317

ing

s

Nov.

1942

123.6

177.7

167.5

233.1

210.3

201.1

86.7

273.3

172.5

104.3

308.8

340.7

125.8

121.6

128.8

143.6

131.8

94.0

86.6

130.4

128.0

142.7

147.1

(4)

222.0

industry

salaried

am and

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943
							Cents	Cents	Cents
All manufacturing.....	\$45.27	\$44.90	\$44.39	45.5	45.4	44.7	99.5	98.9	98.2
Durable goods.....	51.08	51.42	51.01	47.2	47.3	46.5	108.5	108.7	108.7
Nondurable goods.....	35.65	35.18	34.73	43.0	42.7	42.2	82.9	82.4	82.1
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Iron and steel and their products.....	49.74	49.78	49.14	47.1	47.1	46.1	105.6	105.7	104.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	51.74	52.88	52.67	45.6	46.2	45.3	113.7	114.4	114.6
Gray-iron and semisteel castings ²	49.55	49.50	47.91	48.0	48.1	46.6	103.5	103.1	102.9
Malleable-iron castings.....	49.53	50.19	48.02	47.8	48.3	46.3	103.4	103.9	103.9
Steel castings.....	50.72	49.94	48.86	47.1	46.7	45.4	107.8	106.9	107.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	37.40	38.40	38.15	43.4	44.6	43.9	86.0	85.9	86.8
Tin cans and other tinware ²	37.95	38.56	37.89	44.2	45.0	43.8	85.9	85.9	86.2
Wirework.....	49.77	49.58	47.53	48.3	48.6	46.7	103.1	102.2	101.2
Cutlery and edge tools.....	43.41	43.15	42.69	46.6	46.5	46.3	92.6	92.2	92.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	46.06	46.02	44.53	48.3	48.3	47.5	95.6	95.5	94.9
Hardware.....	44.73	45.12	44.22	48.2	48.7	47.5	92.7	92.7	93.1
Plumbers' supplies.....	46.40	45.97	43.58	47.8	47.6	45.7	97.1	96.6	95.0
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	45.68	45.38	44.20	47.2	47.4	46.2	96.7	95.8	96.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	47.62	47.80	47.93	48.0	48.4	47.7	99.2	98.9	100.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	46.80	45.73	44.64	46.8	46.2	44.9	99.3	98.9	99.2
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	54.01	53.45	52.23	48.7	49.1	47.9	110.1	108.9	108.0
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding and trim.....	49.90	49.75	51.47	49.4	48.8	49.7	101.1	101.9	104.4
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	49.34	48.24	47.07	48.8	47.8	46.9	101.2	100.8	100.3
Forgings, iron and steel.....	60.13	58.60	55.89	49.2	48.6	48.8	122.3	121.5	120.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	50.02	49.68	48.72	50.1	49.9	49.3	99.7	99.5	98.8
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	44.91	41.88	41.30	45.4	42.8	43.0	96.9	96.0	96.1
Firearms ²	60.18	57.92	58.64	48.7	47.4	47.7	123.6	123.3	122.9
Electrical machinery.....	46.63	46.44	46.47	47.1	47.1	46.8	96.0	96.6	96.3
Electrical equipment.....	48.89	48.75	48.69	47.4	47.4	47.4	103.3	102.9	103.7
Radios and phonographs.....	41.36	40.71	41.00	46.8	46.7	46.6	88.4	87.2	88.2
Communication equipment.....	43.15	42.75	42.33	46.4	46.1	46.1	92.4	92.3	91.9
Machinery, except electrical.....	54.06	53.87	53.22	49.0	49.6	48.6	109.0	108.6	108.5
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	53.49	52.59	52.12	49.7	49.1	48.2	107.8	107.0	107.9
Engines and turbines.....	59.50	60.15	58.90	50.1	50.7	49.6	118.9	119.1	119.2
Tractors.....	52.58	52.03	51.14	47.3	46.8	45.9	111.2	111.3	111.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	51.89	51.79	52.00	47.5	47.7	46.8	108.3	108.8	111.9
Machine tools ²	55.13	55.34	53.43	50.4	50.7	49.2	109.3	109.2	108.6
Textile machinery.....	47.09	47.16	46.04	49.6	49.8	48.9	95.0	94.7	94.1
Typewriters.....	48.22	48.14	48.00	48.4	48.6	48.8	99.5	99.1	98.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	61.40	62.24	60.94	51.7	52.0	50.6	119.9	120.1	120.7
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic.....	45.18	45.69	45.83	46.1	46.8	46.2	97.9	97.6	98.3
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	58.13	57.90	59.29	53.3	53.4	52.5	109.7	109.0	112.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	50.52	50.48	51.15	47.7	47.9	48.1	105.9	105.3	106.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	59.63	58.47	58.88	47.7	47.5	47.1	125.0	123.1	125.0
Locomotives.....	61.51	63.51	60.09	49.0	50.0	47.8	125.5	126.0	125.6
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	50.64	49.02	47.39	46.1	46.2	43.2	109.8	108.2	108.6
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines.....	52.42	51.75	51.96	46.9	46.6	46.6	112.0	110.6	111.5
Aircraft engines.....	60.75	60.68	61.28	47.5	47.6	47.2	127.8	127.5	128.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding.....	64.77	62.88	63.68	48.4	47.9	47.6	133.9	131.3	133.7
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.....	49.08	50.37	48.93	47.3	48.3	40.4	104.8	104.3	105.6
Automobiles.....	59.05	60.54	58.43	46.9	48.2	46.3	125.9	125.6	126.2
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	48.65	48.26	48.75	47.1	46.9	46.7	103.3	102.9	104.4
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	47.96	47.96	48.33	45.8	45.7	45.6	104.7	104.9	105.9
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum.....	53.53	53.46	53.95	48.3	48.2	48.0	110.9	110.8	112.4
Clocks and watches.....	41.06	41.28	40.97	47.0	46.4	45.9	88.7	89.1	89.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943
Durable goods—Continued									
Numerous metals and their products—Con.							<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	\$40.10	\$38.79	\$38.61	44.5	43.7	44.5	89.1	88.0	87.0
Silverware and plated ware.....	46.71	45.80	44.12	47.1	46.7	44.4	99.3	98.2	99.4
Lighting equipment.....	46.41	45.50	46.86	45.9	45.6	45.5	101.1	99.9	102.9
Aluminum manufactures.....	49.52	49.41	50.02	47.1	47.2	47.2	105.2	104.7	105.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	33.67	34.17	33.41	43.5	44.2	43.5	77.4	77.3	76.8
Sawmills and logging camps.....	32.69	33.34	32.70	42.8	43.7	43.1	76.3	76.3	75.9
Planing and plywood mills.....	36.25	36.87	35.67	45.5	46.0	44.9	80.7	80.3	79.6
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	34.63	34.73	33.58	44.4	44.7	43.5	78.0	77.7	77.2
Furniture.....	35.32	35.56	34.23	44.3	44.8	43.9	79.9	79.7	79.3
Caskets and other mortician's goods.....	37.62	37.11	35.57	45.8	45.4	44.2	82.3	81.7	80.4
Wood preserving.....	31.30	32.62	32.69	43.4	44.9	44.9	72.1	72.6	72.8
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	38.24	38.11	37.02	43.6	43.8	42.4	87.7	87.0	87.3
Glass and glassware.....	39.96	39.35	37.96	42.6	43.0	40.8	93.3	91.7	93.1
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	34.40	33.13	31.49	45.3	44.1	42.5	75.8	75.1	74.0
Cement.....	39.38	40.07	39.07	44.0	44.3	42.8	89.5	90.5	91.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	31.78	32.00	30.84	41.4	41.7	40.3	76.0	76.1	76.0
Pottery and related products.....	35.00	35.01	33.63	41.4	41.6	40.1	85.3	85.3	85.5
Gypsum.....	45.74	45.35	42.33	49.7	49.8	47.1	92.0	91.1	88.8
Lime.....	36.08	35.82	35.15	47.8	47.2	46.2	75.3	75.2	75.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	37.37	37.55	35.35	42.6	43.1	41.3	87.5	86.7	85.5
Abrazives.....	45.89	45.30	45.05	47.4	47.1	46.9	96.8	96.3	96.1
Asbestos products.....	45.87	45.48	45.94	47.6	47.9	47.9	96.1	94.9	95.9
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	28.34	28.08	27.68	41.8	41.6	41.0	67.8	67.5	67.5
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	24.77	24.57	24.58	41.8	41.5	41.1	59.3	59.3	59.9
Cotton smallwares.....	31.71	32.15	30.79	42.4	43.2	41.8	74.4	74.5	73.7
Silk and rayon goods.....	28.05	27.85	26.79	42.3	42.4	40.9	65.9	65.5	63.5
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	34.43	34.24	33.81	41.7	41.7	41.4	82.5	82.1	81.7
Hosiery.....	28.42	28.01	27.07	39.3	39.1	38.1	72.0	71.6	71.1
Knitted cloth.....	32.66	32.65	31.88	43.4	42.8	42.6	75.1	75.5	75.1
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	29.35	28.19	27.76	40.9	40.1	39.7	71.0	69.9	69.5
Knitted underwear.....	25.79	25.30	24.80	41.4	41.3	40.6	61.8	60.6	60.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	32.94	32.86	31.96	44.4	44.5	43.7	74.2	73.8	73.1
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	38.41	37.61	36.63	43.3	42.9	42.1	88.8	88.0	87.3
Hats, fur-felt.....	41.87	40.54	39.37	42.1	41.3	40.9	99.5	98.0	96.3
Fur goods, except felts.....	32.84	32.11	31.61	44.3	43.5	43.4	74.2	73.8	73.6
Cordage and twine.....	30.96	30.53	30.23	44.5	44.6	44.3	69.4	68.3	68.1
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	28.23	27.86	27.86	38.1	37.8	37.5	74.1	73.7	74.3
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	30.09	29.34	28.80	38.6	38.0	37.4	77.9	77.3	76.8
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	23.28	23.01	22.27	38.2	38.2	37.1	61.0	60.2	60.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	25.88	25.44	24.24	38.4	38.0	36.6	67.4	66.9	66.3
Work shirts.....	19.80	19.20	18.64	39.0	38.7	38.0	50.9	49.2	48.7
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	32.92	32.90	33.93	36.6	36.4	36.5	88.9	89.0	90.9
Coats and allied garments.....	28.97	28.43	28.30	41.2	40.7	41.4	70.4	70.0	68.5
Millinery.....	30.75	33.24	34.80	30.3	31.6	32.7	87.8	88.5	89.2
Handkerchiefs.....	22.40	22.53	20.71	38.4	38.5	36.0	58.3	58.5	57.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	34.46	32.70	32.53	39.7	39.3	39.5	61.8	59.9	59.5
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	33.08	32.19	31.96	43.6	43.1	42.4	76.7	75.8	76.7
Textile bags.....	27.39	27.54	26.93	41.8	42.6	41.9	65.8	65.0	64.7
Leather and leather products.....	30.61	30.22	29.99	39.8	39.5	39.5	76.9	76.5	76.5
Leather.....	38.43	37.99	37.73	42.9	42.7	42.5	90.2	89.4	89.0
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	30.57	30.70	30.09	40.6	41.3	40.6	75.3	75.2	75.0
Boots and shoes.....	28.87	28.33	28.38	39.0	38.5	38.4	73.6	73.3	73.6
Leather gloves and mittens.....	28.95	28.36	27.09	39.2	39.0	37.3	74.6	73.0	73.2
Trunks and suitcases.....	33.74	32.54	31.31	41.0	40.8	40.0	81.1	79.5	77.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943
							Cents	Cents	Cents
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>									
Food	\$37.72	\$35.94	\$34.68	45.5	44.1	43.3	82.9	81.5	80.1
Slaughtering and meat packing	47.08	41.94	40.11	51.6	47.3	45.8	91.8	89.0	87.9
Butter	31.77	31.96	31.72	47.0	47.1	47.0	68.0	67.8	67.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	34.25	33.72	34.37	48.3	48.4	48.0	70.9	69.7	70.5
Ice cream	36.71	36.22	35.61	45.8	45.1	45.4	79.7	78.4	78.1
Flour	40.77	40.44	38.74	49.9	49.7	48.3	81.9	81.4	80.2
Cereal preparations	43.95	44.59	42.87	46.8	46.7	45.2	93.9	90.5	89.6
Baking	26.69	36.43	36.80	45.1	45.0	45.0	81.5	81.1	81.5
Sugar refining, cane	38.14	37.41	38.48	47.3	45.0	46.7	80.7	83.0	82.3
Sugar, beet	36.30	30.86	34.00	45.8	38.0	36.0	70.2	81.1	94.1
Confectionery	28.87	28.62	28.26	42.2	41.7	41.2	68.8	69.0	69.0
Beverages, nonalcoholic	32.84	32.29	32.66	43.1	42.6	43.8	76.6	76.5	75.6
Malt liquors	48.19	48.28	49.17	45.0	45.1	45.8	108.2	107.6	107.4
Canning and preserving	28.30	28.13	26.52	38.1	38.5	38.1	74.8	73.6	70.2
Tobacco manufactures	28.60	28.54	27.67	42.5	42.6	41.3	67.3	67.0	67.6
Cigarettes	32.06	31.62	30.49	43.9	43.5	41.1	73.1	72.4	72.4
Cigars	25.87	26.01	23.56	41.4	42.0	41.7	62.4	62.2	61.1
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	26.98	26.90	25.76	41.4	41.2	39.9	64.9	64.9	64.4
Paper and allied products	37.19	37.06	36.17	45.8	45.7	44.6	81.2	81.1	81.1
Paper and pulp	40.57	40.63	39.36	47.2	47.3	45.7	85.8	86.0	86.1
Envelopes	35.34	35.24	34.79	45.2	44.9	44.6	78.3	78.4	77.9
Paper bags	33.48	32.70	32.12	45.5	44.5	42.9	73.9	74.0	73.1
Paper boxes	33.43	32.95	32.50	44.0	43.9	43.3	73.7	73.1	73.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	41.63	41.49	41.73	40.5	40.2	40.4	102.8	103.2	103.1
Newspapers and periodicals	46.25	46.33	46.27	37.5	37.7	37.9	121.3	120.9	121.3
Printing, book and job	39.36	38.96	38.78	41.7	41.2	41.5	94.1	94.8	94.7
Lithographing ²	44.07	42.51	42.16	44.2	42.7	42.7	99.9	98.7	98.9
Chemicals and allied products	42.45	42.64	42.73	45.5	45.8	45.6	93.3	93.1	93.7
Paints, varnishes, and colors	44.40	44.17	43.47	46.9	47.0	46.4	94.9	94.3	93.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	34.30	34.58	34.02	44.2	44.2	43.3	78.0	78.6	77.7
Soap	45.07	44.01	45.85	46.7	45.9	46.9	96.6	95.9	97.7
Rayon and allied products	37.81	37.22	38.15	42.7	42.2	42.2	88.6	88.2	90.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	50.40	50.34	50.08	46.5	46.8	46.1	108.2	107.6	108.6
Explosives and safety fuses	47.77	46.85	47.92	46.5	46.1	46.5	102.8	101.7	103.0
Ammunition, small-arms	42.43	43.77	43.60	44.9	46.1	46.2	94.6	94.9	94.4
Fireworks	(?)	38.08	37.49	(?)	42.5	41.6	(?)	88.6	86.1
Cottonseed oil ³	26.20	26.00	24.88	53.8	54.4	52.6	48.5	47.7	47.1
Fertilizers	27.94	28.86	29.41	43.4	44.2	44.2	64.4	65.4	66.4
Products of petroleum and coal	53.04	53.01	52.44	46.0	46.3	45.4	115.3	114.5	115.5
Petroleum refining	56.22	56.10	55.34	46.0	46.0	45.1	122.8	122.2	123.3
Coke and byproducts	44.75	45.76	46.64	44.9	46.1	45.1	99.5	99.3	100.6
Roofing materials	46.65	46.19	45.02	49.2	49.6	48.4	94.8	93.0	93.0
Rubber products	48.72	48.08	47.46	45.7	45.4	44.9	106.6	106.9	106.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	57.43	56.49	55.18	46.2	46.0	45.3	124.0	123.1	122.2
Rubber boots and shoes	38.94	38.39	38.65	44.9	44.3	44.3	86.8	86.0	87.2
Rubber goods, other	41.03	40.42	40.01	45.3	45.0	44.5	90.7	90.0	90.1
Miscellaneous industries	42.55	41.86	41.36	46.4	46.1	45.6	91.7	90.6	90.7
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment	53.60	51.96	52.17	51.0	50.8	50.4	105.0	102.4	103.6
Photographic apparatus	48.29	47.12	45.44	47.0	46.3	44.8	102.9	102.0	101.6
Pianos, organs, and parts	45.65	45.90	46.24	47.5	47.7	47.6	96.4	96.4	97.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943	Nov. 1943	Oct. 1943	Sept. 1943
Coal mining:							<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Anthracite	\$28.07	\$44.74	\$43.73	25.5	41.7	40.6	110.9	106.9	107.8
Bituminous	32.55	45.08	45.96	28.6	38.8	39.4	115.0	116.5	116.8
Metal mining:	44.09	45.17	44.76	44.1	45.4	44.8	99.3	99.4	99.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	37.89	38.65	37.69	46.4	47.7	46.4	81.5	81.1	81.2
Crude-petroleum production	51.83	50.82	51.23	44.8	44.3	44.5	113.1	112.2	113.0
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Electric light and power	46.37	46.14	45.41	42.8	42.7	42.3	108.6	107.8	106.3
Street railways and busses	45.67	44.69	44.77	49.8	49.6	49.0	90.2	89.3	89.6
Wholesale trade	40.97	40.69	40.61	42.9	42.7	42.6	95.6	95.3	95.2
Retail trade ²	24.70	24.93	25.35	39.6	39.9	40.3	68.8	68.8	68.4
Food ²	29.20	29.14	29.78	40.2	40.3	40.8	68.0	67.9	68.3
General merchandise ²	20.17	20.42	20.73	35.1	35.7	36.4	55.9	56.3	56.2
Apparel ²	26.37	26.39	26.20	36.4	36.5	36.8	73.5	72.5	71.3
Furniture and housefurnishings ²	35.75	35.44	35.47	43.6	43.6	44.0	85.8	84.2	82.2
Automotive ²	38.34	38.38	37.61	48.5	47.6	47.2	78.3	82.0	81.7
Lumber and building materials ²	35.57	36.53	35.80	43.0	43.9	43.3	84.6	85.0	84.4
Hotels (year-round) ²	21.37	21.12	20.87	44.8	44.7	44.8	47.4	47.3	46.5
Power laundries	25.51	25.12	24.67	44.0	44.0	44.0	58.4	57.6	56.3
Dyeing and cleaning	28.98	29.36	29.20	43.5	44.1	45.0	68.9	67.6	66.6
Brokerage	51.10	50.65	50.22	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Insurance	43.60	43.16	42.45	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Building construction	50.59	50.54	49.59	39.2	39.7	39.4	129.2	127.3	125.8

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Gray-iron and semisteel castings.—June 1943 average hourly earnings to 99.6 cents.

Tin cans and other tinware.—November 1942 to August 1943 average weekly earnings to \$33.42, \$35.44, \$35.10, \$35.52, \$36.06, \$37.01, \$37.58, \$37.73, \$38.71, and \$37.48; average weekly hours to 41.8, 42.2, 43.6, 43.7, 44.4, 44.9, 45.3, 45.3, 44.6, and 44.9 hours. November 1942 to July 1943 average hourly earnings to 80.0, 80.6, 80.8, 80.9, 81.5, 82.3, 82.8, and 83.1 cents. Revised data are now comparable with corresponding averages for months prior to November 1942.

Firearms.—July and August 1943 average hourly earnings to 120.7 and 120.4 cents.

Machine tools.—August 1943 average weekly hours and average hourly earnings to 49.1 hours and 107.0 cents.

Lithographing.—July 1943 average weekly hours to 42.2; August 1943 average weekly and hourly earnings to \$41.76 and 96.5 cents.

Cutmead oil.—June, July, and August 1943 average weekly earnings to \$22.69, \$22.70, and \$22.83; June and August 1943 average weekly hours to 47.8 and 47.1 hours.

Retail trade, total.—Average weekly hours, January 40.9, February 40.8, March 40.6, April 40.3, May 40.3, July 41.6; average hourly earnings January 64.2, June 67.1.

Food.—Average weekly earnings, January \$27.66, February \$27.88, March \$27.83, April \$27.73, May \$28.18, June \$29.21, July \$30.12; average weekly hours, January 41.0, February 40.9, March 40.6, April 40.5, May 40.5; average hourly earnings, January 64.4, February 65.0, March 65.0, April 65.2, May 66.2, June 66.5, July 67.5, August 67.4.

General merchandise.—Average weekly hours, April 36.5, May 36.3; average hourly earnings, January \$3.5.

Apparel.—Average weekly earnings, June \$26.78, August \$26.64; average weekly hours, January 37.2, February 37.5, April 36.2; average hourly earnings, January 66.8, May 68.1.

Furniture.—Average weekly hours, February 44.0; average hourly earnings, February 77.2, March 77.7, May 80.7, June 80.9, July 82.3, August 81.7.

Automotive.—Average weekly earnings, June \$37.33; average hourly earnings, March 75.7.

Lumber.—Average weekly hours, January 42.5, February 42.5, April 42.9, May 42.9, June 43.4, July 43.4, August 43.6; average hourly earnings, April 80.1, May 80.9, June 81.2, July 81.2, August 81.9.

³ Not available.

⁴ Data not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.

⁵ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips, not included.

Revised Census Estimates of the Civilian Labor Force

REVISED estimates of the civilian labor force, employment, and unemployment, from the sample "Monthly Report on the Labor Force" have been released by the Bureau of the Census and are shown in the accompanying table. Additional estimates from the revised Census series will be published as they become available. The revisions have served to increase moderately the over-all size of the civilian labor force and civilian employment. In general, the increase has been concentrated among females, with the revised estimates for male workers during the past year being somewhat below the unrevised figures. Current unemployment estimates remained at the low level of less than a million.

Between November and December 1943, both employment and the civilian labor force declined by 700,000 persons as harvests were completed and seasonal workers in agriculture withdrew from the labor force. The volume of employment remained unchanged at 900,000.

Estimated Civilian Labor Force, by Employment Status and by Sex,¹ December 1941 to December 1943

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Month	Estimated number (millions of persons) ²								
	Labor force			Employed			Unemployed ³		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<i>1941</i>									
December	54.9	40.3	14.6	51.0	37.6	13.4	3.9	2.7	1.2
<i>1942</i>									
January	54.2	40.1	14.1	49.7	37.0	12.7	4.5	3.1	1.4
February	54.4	40.2	14.2	50.2	37.3	12.9	4.2	2.9	1.3
March	54.6	40.1	14.5	50.9	37.6	13.3	3.7	2.5	1.2
April	54.6	39.9	14.7	51.4	37.8	13.6	3.2	2.1	1.1
May	55.0	40.0	15.0	52.3	38.4	13.9	2.7	1.6	1.1
June	56.7	41.0	15.7	53.7	39.2	14.5	3.0	1.8	1.2
July	57.3	41.5	15.8	54.5	39.8	14.7	2.8	1.7	1.1
August	57.2	41.0	16.2	54.8	39.5	15.3	2.4	1.5	.9
September	55.6	39.2	16.4	53.7	38.1	15.6	1.9	1.1	.8
October	56.0	39.1	16.9	54.2	38.0	16.2	1.8	1.1	.7
November	55.3	38.5	16.8	53.5	37.4	16.1	1.8	1.1	.7
December	54.7	37.8	16.9	53.1	36.9	16.2	1.6	.9	.7
<i>1943</i>									
January	53.4	37.0	16.4	51.8	36.1	15.7	1.6	.9	.7
February	53.2	36.6	16.6	51.7	35.7	16.0	1.5	.9	.6
March	52.9	36.2	16.7	51.7	35.5	16.2	1.2	.7	.5
April	52.9	36.1	16.8	51.8	35.5	16.3	1.1	.6	.5
May	53.7	36.4	17.3	52.6	35.8	16.8	1.1	.6	.5
June	55.2	37.0	18.2	53.9	36.3	17.6	1.3	.7	.6
July	56.0	37.5	18.5	54.6	36.7	17.9	1.4	.8	.6
August	55.4	37.1	18.3	54.2	36.5	17.7	1.2	.6	.5
September	53.8	35.7	18.1	52.5	35.2	17.6	1.0	.5	.5
October	53.0	35.3	17.7	52.1	34.8	17.3	.9	.5	.4
November	52.6	35.1	17.5	51.7	34.6	17.1	.9	.5	.4
December	51.9	34.8	17.1	51.0	34.2	16.8	.9	.6	.3

¹ Data for November and December 1943 have been collected under a new sampling plan designed to take account of population shifts during the war. The figures for October 1943 and earlier months are the result of preliminary adjustments of the old series to bring it as closely as possible into line with the new.

² All data exclude persons in institutions.

³ Persons on public emergency works projects are included with the unemployed prior to July 1, 1943.

Labor Chronology

Chronology of Labor Events, October-December 1943

OCTOBER

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- Oct. 1. The National Advisory Committee of the Women's Land Army completed a 2-day conference during which discussions were held with the Extension Service of the War Food Administration on ways to utilize women to alleviate the anticipated agricultural manpower shortage in 1944. The Committee recommended the waiving of the service and age requirements for membership in the Women's Land Army, so that any woman or girl in farm work would be eligible to wear the work uniform and insignia; special recognition was recommended for length of service. An intensive campaign for membership was urged, starting with a "Women's Land Army Week" early in 1944. (Source: Department of Agriculture, Release of Oct. 2, 1943.)
- Oct. 2. The Selective Service System directed the deferment of necessary men in seasonal war-supporting activities (for summary, see Monthly Labor Review, December 1943, p. 1124). (Source: National Headquarters, Selective Service System, Regulations, 622.21 to 622.25; Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4452.)
- Oct. 4. The President (in order to facilitate budgeting activities) ordered all Government departments and establishments authorized to do so by law, to prepare and keep up to date carefully planned and realistic long-range programs of public works and improvement projects financed wholly or partly by the Federal Government, and to submit to the Bureau of the Budget estimates of supplemental appropriations for the fiscal years 1944 and 1945 to cover "plan preparation" for projects proposed for the first 3 years of the programs. The Director of the Bureau would report at least once a year to the President on the total program. (Source: The White House, Executive order of Oct. 4, 1943.)
- Oct. 4-10. The International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (UAW-CIO)—the first international union in the United States with a membership of over a million wage earners—held its eighth annual convention in Buffalo. (For summary of proceedings, see M. L. R., Nov. 1943, p. 954.)
- Oct. 4-14. The American Federation of Labor held its sixty-third convention in Boston. (For summary of proceedings, see M. L. R., Dec. 1943, p. 1180.)
- Oct. 6. The President by Executive order transferred the functions of the War Food Administration and the Commodity Credit Corporation "with respect to the procurement and development of food, food machinery, and other food facilities, in foreign countries" to the Foreign Economic Administration. (Source: Federal Register, vol. 8, p. 13782.)

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- Oct. 7. The OPA announced that War Ration Book Four would be distributed through schoolhouses and other public buildings between October 18 and October 30. War Ration Book Three had been distributed through the mails (see Chron. item for Apr. 20, 1943, M. L. R. Aug. 1943). The new book, designed to last at least 96 weeks, would go into use on November 1, and no stamps would be deducted at the time of issuance as had been done with War Ration Book Two for excess stocks of processed foods held by consumers. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3274, OPA-3298, OPA-3283, OPA-3309, and OPA-3170.)
- On October 13 the OPA announced the awarding of a contract for the manufacture of 900,000,000 ration tokens (450,000,000 blue, and 450,000,000 red) for use beginning in February. Each token will have a value of 1 ration point and will be used by retailers as change for ration stamps used for processed foods (blue tokens) and meats and fats (red tokens). (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3305.)
- Oct. 9. The Federal Security Agency announced the appointment of a national Rehabilitation Advisory Council of 20 outstanding leaders in training for the handicapped (see also Chron. item for July 6, 1943, M. L. R. Nov. 1943). (Source: Office of War Information, Federal Security Agency, OWI-2581.)
- On November 12 the War Manpower Commission announced 139,862 placements of handicapped persons by the U. S. Employment Service in the first 9 months of 1943, an increase of 129.5 percent over 60,932 placed in the corresponding period of 1942. (see also second Chron. item for Mar. 11, 1943, M. L. R. May 1943). (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4464.) Total nonagricultural job placements for the first 9 months of 1943 were 6,980,000 or about 39 percent over the first 9 months of 1942. (Source: PM-4472.)
- Oct. 12. The Federal Coal Mines Administrator announced the termination of Government possession of the 1,700 mines remaining under his control (see Chron. items for May 1, M. L. R. Aug. 1943; and Aug. 20, M. L. R. Nov. 1943). (Source: Office of War Information, Department of the Interior, OWI-2596.)
- Oct. 13. The Secretary of Labor, after arrangements with the War Labor Board, reconstituted the Wage Adjustment Board for the Building Construction Industry into a 9-man tripartite board with 3 representatives each of the public, industry, and labor. (For summary, see M. L. R., Dec. 1943, p. 1127.)
- Oct. 14. The War Food Administration announced the formation of an Inter-Agency Committee on Food for Workers in order to provide food for industrial workers to assure the highest efficiency in production. The new Committee includes representatives of the War Food Administration, the WPB, the OPA, and the War Manpower Commission. (Source: Office of War Information, Department of Agriculture, AG-803.)
- Oct. 14. In order to prevent a repetition of increases in prices of fresh vegetables, which last winter forced up the cost of living, the OPA announced a range of retail ceilings for 13 vegetables (lima beans, snap beans, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, cucumbers, eggplant, lettuce, green peas, peppers, spinach, and tomatoes) based on so-called "country shipping point" prices, that is, prices paid at the railroad or truck loading point from which the vegetables are originally shipped. These prices would be substantially lower than during the last winter. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3310 and OPA-3311.)

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- Oct. 15. The Secretary of Labor made public a report on "Settling Plant Grievances," prepared at the request of industrialists and union leaders and summarizing the experience of many large corporations and labor unions in working out grievance machinery. "Plant experience clearly indicates that fuller utilization of grievance machinery throughout American industry would materially reduce the number of disputes coming before Government agencies today." Samples of forms and procedures were included in the bulletin. (Source: Office of War Information, Department of Labor, OWI-2609.)
- Oct. 16. The President by Executive order established a Special Emergency Board of three members, selected from the National Railway Labor Panel, to consider the claims for wage adjustments of non-operating railway employees, and to report to him on or before November 15, 1943 (for summary, see M. L. R., Dec. 1943). (Source: White House Release of Oct. 16, 1943.)
- Oct. 19. The War Production Board and the War Manpower Commission announced a basic "urgency" plan to integrate production needs with manpower resources in "urgency" labor-shortage areas. This plan provides for the establishment of two committees in such areas: (1) an area production urgency committee to determine which production in the area is most important, and (2) an area manpower priorities committee to allot the manpower. Each area would be given almost entire responsibility for solving its problems. The two types of committees had already been established and were functioning in San Diego, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Portland (Oreg.), and Seattle, as well as in Hartford, Akron, and Detroit. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, War Production Board, OWI-2630.) On December 10, the WPB and the WMC announced agreement upon a cooperative program for the more effective recruiting of labor for local essential civilian needs. Under the agreement the Office of Civilian Requirements of the WPB would make findings of fact through its representatives who would consult with the corresponding WMC State, regional, and area representatives concerning recommendations with respect to industries, trades, or services within the jurisdiction of the OCR. The determinations of "locally needed" trades and services would be made after consultation. (Source: OWI-2775.)
- Oct. 21. The War Manpower Commission announced that the 48-hour week would be applied before November 15 in all of the 71 acute labor-shortage areas in the country, and within 30 days to any new areas added to this group. The longer workweek had already been put into effect in 40 of the 71 areas, and had been applied on a Nation-wide basis to the following industries: Nonferrous mining and smelting, metals, logging, and iron and steel. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4457.) Subsequently, on December 1, the War Manpower Commission reported the existence of 69 acute labor-shortage areas (Group I) and 124 areas of labor stringency or where a labor shortage was expected within 6 months (Group II). Labor areas which would have a slight surplus after 6 months (Group III) numbered 102; areas with a prospective substantial labor surplus (Group IV) numbered 63. The Commission defined a labor-market area as one including a city of 25,000 population or more, or in which special labor-supply problems exist; 358 such areas were designated in the country. (Source: PM-4469, PM-4469A.) On January 1, 1944, the four groups had 67, 119, 112, and 60, respectively. (Source: PM-4497.)
- Oct. 21. The War Manpower Commission issued its policy concerning (1) referrals to jobs vacant because of labor disputes, and (2) issuance of statements of availability to workers unemployed because of such disputes. The Regional Manpower Director, after consultation

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with the Government agency concerned with the adjustment of the labor dispute, would issue instructions in such cases to the local employment offices of the U. S. Employment Service. (Source: WMC Field Instruction No. 72.)

- Oct. 21. The President accepted the resignation of Prentiss M. Brown as Administrator of the Office of Price Administration, and subsequently nominated Chester Bowles as his successor. (Source: White House Release of Oct. 21, 1943; New York Times, Oct. 26, p. 10.)
- Oct. 24. The Office of War Information announced the inauguration of a plan to exchange war-plant workers between the United States and Great Britain, and the departure of four war workers (representing aviation motors, steel, and chemical plants) for a month's visit to British factories. (Source: Office of War Information, OWI-2629.) Four British workers returned with the United States workers on December 30. (Source: OWI-2828.)
- Oct. 26. The President approved an act (Pub. No. 174) liberalizing allowances for servicemen's dependents. (For summary, see M. L. R., Jan. 1944, p. 67.)
- Oct. 26. The President, by proclamation, directed the registration of all unregistered male citizens of the United States outside continental United States, aged 18 to 44, inclusive, between November 16 and December 31, 1943. Those reaching 18 on or after January 1, 1944, will register on their birthday. (Source: The White House, Proclamation of Oct. 26, 1943.)
- Oct. 27. The President sent to Congress a preliminary report from the Armed Forces Committee on Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel, appointed by him to study the steps to be taken to enable young draftees to resume their interrupted schooling after the end of the war. The Committee recommended sufficient financial aid to enable every man or woman (with at least 6 months' service in the armed forces) to complete 1 year of study at some approved educational institution—in the case of exceptionally able students, aid for 1, 2, or even 3 additional years. (Source: White House Release of Oct. 27, 1943.)
- Oct. 28. The President issued an Executive order simplifying the food-allocation process. The Food Advisory Committee and Inter-Agency Committee (see Chron. item for Oct. 14, this issue) were abolished and the War Food Administrator created a Food Requirements and Allocations Committee to pass on all domestic and foreign claims for food from United States sources. The food-requirements branch of the War Food Administration will represent United States domestic claims for food and the Office of Foreign Economic Administration (see M. L. R., Nov. 1943, p. 936) will represent foreign claims. Simultaneously with the issuance of this Executive order, the President and the British Prime Minister announced a rearrangement of the Combined Food Board: The Secretary of Agriculture was named neutral Chairman, and the War Food Administrator was made the United States member of the Board; Canada had been invited to send a member. (Source: White House Release of Oct. 29, 1943; Executive Order No. 9392.)
- Oct. 30. The Director Of Economic Stabilization, the War Food Administrator, and the Price Administrator jointly requested the Interstate Commerce Commission to suspend freight-rate increases (about 4.7 percent) scheduled to go into effect January 1, 1944 (see Chron. item for Apr. 6, M. L. R. Aug. 1943). (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3412.) On November 8, the ICC suspended the rate increases until June 30, 1944. (Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.)

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Oct. 31. The President presented a report to the Congress on the country's food situation. To the report was attached a schedule giving in detail the current support prices of the War Food Administration for agricultural products. The President said that the Commodity Credit price-support program for 1943 had cost the Government 350 million dollars and that the cost of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation program for reducing the prices of meat and butter amounted to an additional 450 million dollars a year. He considered the relative stabilization of the cost of living well worth these moderate expenditures. (Source: White House Release of Oct. 31, 1943.)

On November 17, the War Food Administrator declared that 1943 was the greatest food-production year in United States history, and that the goals for 1944 called for planting 16 million more acres than were planted in 1943. (Source: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Release of Nov. 19, 1943.)

NOVEMBER

Nov. 1. The President by Executive order authorized and directed the Secretary of the Interior for the second time (see Chron. item for May 1, M. L. R. Aug. 1943) to take over the possession and operation of every coal mine where a strike had occurred or was threatened, and to negotiate working contracts for the period of Government operation (for discussion, see M. L. R., Dec. 1943, p. 1115). In conformity with the President's order the Secretary of the Interior immediately took over 2,382 mines and by November 2, had frozen approximately 3,000,000 tons of bituminous coal in transit on the railroads, with the view of providing for the most essential needs only. This coal was released by November 6. (Source: Office of War Information, Department of the Interior, OWI-2674, OWI-2677, and OWI-2691.)

On November 3, the Secretary of the Interior and the president of the United Mine Workers of America reached an agreement under which coal miners would return to work. The agreement was approved by the National War Labor Board by actions of November 5 and November 20, and provided the mine workers \$8.50 for 8 hours of productive work and 45 minutes of travel time. The Board said that the wage-stabilization policy had not been broken by this decision and that the agreement covers only the period of Government operation. The increase in coal prices authorized as a result of this contract, the Board stated, was made to cover premium pay for the 6 hours' extra work a week, and was not caused by the increase in wages. (Sources: U. S. Department of the Interior, 66293-1; Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1096, B-1107, and B-1172.)

On December 22 the Coal Mines Administrator announced the termination of Government possession and control over all the mines of the Coal Producers Association of Illinois (17 companies) after contracts with the Progressive Mine Workers of America had been extended to March 31, 1945. These contracts were approved by the National War Labor Board on December 3, 1943. (Source: Office of War Information, Department of the Interior, OWI-2809; National War Labor Board, B-1145.) By January 13, 1944, some 411 nonunion (as distinct from union) coal companies were released from Government possession and control. (Source: Department of the Interior.)

Nov. 1-5. The Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) held its 6th constitutional convention in Philadelphia. (For summary of proceedings see M. L. R., Jan. 1943, p. 113.)

Nov. 2. The OPA in reporting on the progress of its Home Front Pledge Campaign (see Chron. item for Aug. 24, M. L. R. Nov. 1943) announced that more than 12 million consumers and retailers had signed pledges to observe top legal prices and the honest use of ration stamps. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3424.)

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- Nov. 3. The National War Labor Board approved by a vote of 8 to 4 (industry members dissenting) proposals of management and labor for the elimination of interplant inequalities in 56 West Coast shipyards employing more than 400,000 workers. About 7 percent of the workers would receive wage increases. (See second Chron. item for July 30, M. L. R. Nov. 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1087.)
- Nov. 5. The President appointed from the membership of the National War Labor Board a 5-man Committee on the Cost of Living (one member representing the public; two, labor; and two, industry) to operate as an independent body and to make a report to him. At its first meeting on November 9, the Committee decided to investigate (1) the cost of living in October 1943 as compared with January 1941, May 1942, and September 1942, (2) the way the cost-of-living index of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics is obtained, (3) whether any changes should be made in the preparation of the BLS index, and (4) possible concrete suggestions to improve that index. (Source: Office of War Information, President's Committee on the Cost of Living, Release of Nov. 9, 1943.) On October 10 a Special Committee of the American Statistical Association, appointed in May 1943 at the suggestion of the Secretary of Labor, had released an appraisal of the BLS index (for findings and recommendations, see M. L. R., Nov. 1943, p. 994).
- Nov. 5. The President, in a letter to the Attorney General, told him that the provisions in Executive Order No. 9346 (see second Chron. item for May 27, 1943) obligating contractors not to discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, creed, color, or national origin, are mandatory and must be incorporated in all Government contracts. (Source: Office of War Information, N-702.) On October 7, the Comptroller General had ruled that the provisions were not mandatory in the Government contract under consideration with the Southwestern Bell Telephone Co. of Kansas City, Mo. The President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice then asked the Attorney General for an interpretation of the scope and meaning of the above Executive order. (Source: Office of War Information, President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, OWI-2669 and OWI-2698.) During October the Committee closed 232 cases of alleged employment discrimination, and on November 1, its active case load reached the peak figure of 1,713 cases. Monsignor Haas had submitted his resignation as Chairman of the Committee on October 7 and the President appointed Malcolm Ross on October 15 as his successor. (Source: White House Release of Oct. 15, 1943; OWI-2742.)
- Nov. 6. The War Mobilization Director announced the appointment of Bernard M. Baruch as head of the Advisory Unit for War and Post-War Adjustment Policies being created in the Office of War Mobilization "to deal with war and post-war adjustment problems [e. g., contract termination, and industrial reconversion to civilian production] and to develop unified programs and policies to be pursued by the various agencies of government concerned." (Source: White House Release of Nov. 6, 1943.)
- Nov. 6. The Chairman of the War Manpower Commission released a report of the 9-man Management-Labor Policy Committee (see first Chron. item for March 20, 1943, M. L. R. May 1943) which expressed the Committee's opposition to National Service legislation and contained recommendations for the attainment of war manpower objectives through voluntary action. Labor, agriculture, and management were represented equally on this Committee. The three labor members were William Green (president, A. F. of L.), Philip Murray (president, C. I. O.), and H. W. Fraser (president, Order of Railway Conductors of America). (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4460.) On

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December 30 the Chairman of the WMC addressed a letter with the Committee's recommendations to the Governors of all States. (Source: PM-4496.)

- Nov. 7. The Bureau of the Census launched a Nation-wide consumer survey for the Office of Civilian Requirements. Census enumerators would visit 7,000 households, representing a scientific cross section of the United States, to inquire about the availability of 115 types of goods and services used in homes and on farms. (Source: Office of War Information, War Production Board, WPB-4539.)
- Nov. 13. The National War Labor Board, in a case involving radio and machine workers of the Nineteen Hundred Corporation (St. Joseph, Mich.), reversed the action of the regional war labor board ordering a Christmas bonus for 1942 equal to that of 1938; reversal was on the ground that the bonus paid yearly by the company since 1935 was by custom only, at the exclusive discretion of the employer. The Board laid down the policy that where a bonus was awarded by agreement or by a long-established and long-observed custom it might constitute a part of the wage or salary structure, and in such a case its omission would be a decrease in wage rates and subject to the approval of the Board. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1134.)
- On October 18, in the case of the Statesville (N. C.) Cotton Mills Co., the Board laid down its general policy of not approving attendance bonuses "unless perhaps under special circumstances." (Source: B-1058.) The Board, however, did approve of bonuses granted to compensate workers for loss in weekly earnings as a result of Executive Order No 9240 which forbade double time for Sunday work as such. (Source: B-1022 and B-1023.)
- Nov. 14. The National War Labor Board in approving a vacation plan for approximately 99,000 workers in Westinghouse Electric Manufacturing Co. plants throughout the country, whereby the vacation period for each employee would be based on the actual number of hours worked rather than on the basic workweek of 40 hours; announced that increases in vacations corresponding to increases in the regularly scheduled workweeks would not require Board approval. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1111.)
- Nov. 15. The National War Labor Board delegated authority to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation to approve adjustments in the wages and salaries, not fixed by statute, of its employees in conformity with the Board's wage policy and subject to review by the Board. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1128.)
- Nov. 16. The National War Labor Board, having held a public hearing on October 28 on the question of the commission method of wage payment, announced that the "Little Steel" formula should not be applied to employees paid by commission, but that such cases should be considered on their merits. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1112.) (For summary, see M. L. R., Jan. 1944, p. 65.)
- Nov. 17. The National War Labor Board empowered its regional boards "to determine what rates or rate up to 50 cents an hour shall constitute the substandard or salary rate in each region for the purpose of Board approval of wage adjustments." (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1116.)
- Nov. 20. The National War Labor Board reconstituted its West Coast Lumber Commission by making it a 6-man tripartite agency whose labor and industry members might be chosen from either inside or outside of the lumber industry. Previously the Commission

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had five members—the panel chairman (representing the public), and two representatives of industry and labor but not connected with the lumber industry. (See Chron. item for July 3, M. L. R. Nov. 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1121.)

- Nov. 22. The President ordered Federal departments and establishments or agencies to make use exclusively of the Social Security account numbers which have already been assigned to some 70 million persons. (Source: The White House, Executive order of Nov. 22, 1943.)
- Nov. 23. The President in a message to the Congress recommended, as a post-victory program for members of the armed forces, legislation to provide for (1) mustering-out pay, (2) unemployment allowances after return to civil life, and (3) credit under the Federal old-age and survivors' insurance law for the period of military service. (Source: White House Release of Nov. 23, 1943.)
- Nov. 24. The Secretary of Labor made public a suggested procedure for settling disputes over overtime pay under Executive Order No. 9240. (For summary, see M. L. R., Jan. 1944, p. 66.)
- Nov. 24. The War Manpower Commission announced a Nation-wide registration of all graduate nurses, to take place in the second week of February. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4467.)
- Nov. 26. The Office of Defense Transportation announced a 10-point program to assure the automotive repairing and servicing industry enough manpower to keep the Nation's motor-transport system in operation. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Defense Transportation, ODT-415.) On December 7, the ODT announced that it was placing field representatives in each of the 12 administrative regions of the War Manpower Commission. (Source: ODT-425.)
- Nov. 30. The General Counsel of the National War Labor Board made public an opinion upholding the authority of the Board, questioned by some since the passage of the War Labor Disputes Act (see Chron. item for June 25, 1943, M. L. R., Aug. 1943), to continue "to direct the adoption of maintenance-of-membership and other customary forms of union-security clauses." (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1139.)
- On November 27 the National War Labor Board had approved a standardized maintenance-of-membership provision, based on its experience during the past year. (Source: B-1135.) (For summary, see M. L. R., Jan. 1944, p. 67.)

DECEMBER

- Dec. 1. The OPA announced the appointment of a Consumers' Advisory Committee of about 25 experts on various consumers' problems to study the effects of OPA policies and regulations on the consumer and to advise OPA on making these policies more effective. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3590.) Among the first recommendations made by this Committee on December 2, were (1) establishment of dollars-and-cents ceiling prices for as many commodities as possible, (2) a price guide book for housewives, and (3) avoidance of the use of "average store mark-up" as a basis for price control. (Source: OPA-3600.)
- Dec. 3. The National War Labor Board approved an agreement between the Progressive Mine Workers of America, District No. 1, A. F. of L., and the Coal Producers Association of Illinois. (For summary of this agreement, covering about 12,000 workers, see M. L. R. Jan. 1944, p. 65.)

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- Dec. 3. The Chairman of the War Manpower Commission reported that as a result of the West Coast Manpower Program (see Chron. item for Sept. 4, M. L. R. Nov. 1943) great savings of manpower had been effected, with "no major revision in the volume of shipyard activity" (for summary see p. 318, this issue). (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4476.)
- Dec. 3. The War Manpower Commission announced the conditions to be fulfilled by dry-cleaning establishments applying for the designation of "locally needed" (see first Chron. item for June 30, M. L. R. Aug. 1943). On December 22 the Commission announced the issuance of general standards to be used as guides in designating linen-supply services as "locally needed activities." (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4474; PM-4488.)
- Dec. 5. The President approved amendments to the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 providing, among other things, for (1) the uniform induction of fathers, as a class, without reference to the essentiality of their occupations, after the induction of all available volunteers and nonfathers (see Chron. item for Feb. 2, 1943, M. L. R. May 1943), (2) the establishment of the Selective Service System as a separate agency under a Director of Selective Service, (3) the appointment of a commission of five qualified physicians to examine the physical, mental, and moral standards used by the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps for inducting men, and to recommend changes in the standards so as to permit (without impairing the efficiency of the armed forces) the induction of men previously rejected, and (4) an investigation by the Director of Selective Service of deferment procedures used by the Federal Government for its employees. (Source: Public Law No. 197.)
- On December 14 the Selective Service System, in conformity with the above law, announced the issuance of regulations "requiring review of the occupational deferment of every registrant whose principal place of employment and local board are in different appeal board areas." (Source: Office of War Information, National Headquarters of Selective Service System, S-1.)
- Dec. 7. The U. S. Office of Education reported that approximately 6 million men and women had been given training since July 1, 1940, under the program of Vocational Training for War Production Workers. The number of workers trained in the public vocational schools was declared to be more than one-quarter of all workers employed in war production industries. (See also Chron. item for Feb. 4, 1943, M. L. R. May 1943.) Approximately 1,500,000 workers had received training for the aircraft-service occupations; nearly 1,000,000 for the shipbuilding industry; more than 1,000,000 for the machine-tool industry; almost 200,000 for radio occupations; more than 131,000 for automotive-service occupations; approximately 100,000 for electrical services; and more than 65,000 for the U. S. Army Signal Corps. About 1 million women had received training, and currently almost one-third of the war production trainees in public vocational schools are women. Some 500,000 industrial supervisors had received training in foremen-training conferences and job-instructor-training courses. Also tens of thousands of workers in plants had been given upgrading training in order to assume more responsible jobs. (Source: Office of War Information, Federal Security Agency, OWI-2771.)
- Dec. 7. The President by Executive order suspended the 8-hour law with reference to laborers and mechanics employed by the Department of Agriculture, including the War Food Administration (for summary, see p. 322, this issue). (Source: Federal Register, vol. 8, p. 16773, Executive Order No. 9401.)
- Dec. 8. The National War Labor Board ordered a minimum wage of 50 cents an hour for workers with 6 or more months of experience in the cotton-garment industry in shops under contract to the Amalga-

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mated Clothing Workers of America, C. I. O. Approximately 50,000 workers (42 percent of whom were earning less than 50 cents an hour) and 550 manufacturers were covered by this order. For the preservation of wage differentials, graduated increases in hourly rates, varying from 10 cents an hour to 2½ cents an hour, were granted in the wage brackets above 50 cents an hour. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1162 and B-1162A.) The Director of Economic Stabilization approved this order. (Source: B-1196.)

On December 7 the Board upheld the orders of July 26 and 28, 1943, of the Second Regional War Labor Board in New York providing a minimum rate of 50 cents an hour, to eliminate sub-standard living rates, for some 5,000 workers in 56 companies associated with the soft shoe and slipper industry. (Source: B-1176.)

Dec. 8. The National War Labor Board, in a case involving the Sacramento, Calif., plant of the Essex Lumber Co., ruled that rapid labor turnover was no justification for the institution of a beginner's wage rate below the minimum rate established for unskilled laborers. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1161.)

Dec. 9. The Director of the Office of Economic Stabilization delegated to the War Food Administrator jurisdiction over all wages and salaries of agricultural workers earning \$5,000 a year or less. (For summary, see p. 321, this issue; see also Chron. item for Nov. 30, 1942, M. L. R. Feb. 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Economic Stabilization, OWI-2779.)

Dec. 13. The War Manpower Commission announced that the determination of the essentiality of an establishment (in order to get priority service by the U. S. Employment Service) would depend not only on its being engaged in an activity included in the List of Essential Activities but also on the end use of its product (i. e., its use to meet war needs or minimum civilian requirements under wartime conditions). (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4485.) On December 25, the Commission announced that the production of infants' and children's wear had been included in its List of Essential Activities. (Source: PM-4492.)

Dec. 14. The War Production Board announced that the number of labor-management production committees had increased to 3,503 and represented more than 6 million workers in all types of war industry and in plants of all sizes, employing from fewer than 100 to over 40,000 workers (see first Chron. item for May 24, 1943, M. L. R. Aug. 1943). (Source: Office of War Information, War Production Board, WPB-4672.)

Dec. 16. The Governing Body of the International Labor Office met in London at the request of the United States Government and other governments, to arrange for an International Labor Conference "for the purpose of formulating recommendations to the United Nations as to practical future labor standards." (Source: Office of War Information, Department of Labor, Department of State, OWI-2796.) The Conference was set for April 20, 1944, in Philadelphia. (Source: A. F. of L. Weekly News Service, Dec. 28, 1943.)

Dec. 17. The President approved an act repealing the Chinese Exclusion Laws (for summary, see p. 367, this issue). (Source: Public No. 198.)

Dec. 19. The National War Labor Board, in upholding the West Coast Lumber Commission's order that three match companies in Spokane, Wash., grant a general increase of 10 cents per hour and establish a minimum of 75 cents per hour, rejected the appeal of the companies which asserted that such a wage increase would put them at a competitive disadvantage with companies in other parts of the country. Said the Board: "The National Board will not countenance a practice of adjusting wage rates in a given region

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at a rate lower than that prevailing in the region for comparable jobs merely because other branches of a given industry located in low-wage areas are paying lower wages." The Board, however, modified the 75-cent minimum for women workers because the case before it involved interplant, and not intraplant, wage inequalities. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1180.)

- Dec. 20. The National War Labor Board, in denying a union petition for an increase above the 8 cents an hour ordered by the Twelfth Regional War Labor Board in Seattle in the Portland (Oreg.) Traction Co. case, stated that it "will not as a general rule grant a wage increase on the ground of effective prosecution of the war merely because an industry is essential and is suffering from a manpower problem." (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1185.)

- Dec. 20. The War Manpower Commission announced the designation of six local offices of the U. S. Employment Service to serve, beginning in January, as demonstration centers to try out the details of the Commission's programs for counseling and placing returning veterans. On the basis of experience thus gained the programs will be extended in March to all USES offices. Besides providing for the immediate needs of veterans the programs are also designed "to set a constructive pattern for the post-war period" of conversion to peacetime economy. The six centers are at New Haven, St. Louis, Fort Worth, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, and Philadelphia. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4486.)

On December 23 the War Manpower Commission announced that all honorably discharged members of the armed forces—both men and women—will be helped to find jobs they like (i. e., even nonwar jobs) regardless of any priorities under local employment-stabilization plans. (Source: PM-4490.)

- Dec. 20. The OPA announced a new rationing program to go into effect after March 1, 1944, for more than 400,000 commercial and institutional eating places. Food rations to eating establishments will no longer depend upon the number of people served; instead, food will be allotted solely on the basis of persons served food, and rations for refreshments will be based on the number of servings of refreshment alone. (Source: Office of Price Administration. OPA-3695 and OPA-3712.)

- Dec. 22. The War Manpower Commission announced that during the 12 months ending November 1943, some 3,300 additional plants had adopted apprentice and short-term training programs, in addition to the 28,000 plants and establishments which had similar programs in operation before November 1942. The short-term training programs (which accounted for about 1,100 of the 3,300 additional plants) are established almost without exception on an individual-plant basis to build up and maintain the ranks of semiskilled men and women in war production. Apprenticeship programs for training all-round skilled workers, besides being based on individual-plant systems, are also based on area-wide systems which cover on the average about 30 employers in a city, county, or larger area. In November 1943, there were 2,555 apprenticeship systems (958 area-wide and 1,597 individual-plant systems). The short-term systems numbered 1,315. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4487.)

On December 6 the Office of Defense Transportation had issued a bulletin, "Transportation Training," indicating the successful training programs which might be adopted by transportation training officials to meet the manpower problems in that industry (see Chron. item for Sept. 1, M. L. R. Nov. 1943). (Source: OWI, ODT, ODT-424.)

About a month earlier, on November 12, the Bureau of Training of the WMC had issued a bulletin, "Training Womanpower," containing recommendations for a general training program for

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women. (Source: PM-4465.) (For discussion of women workers in the transportation industry, see M. L. R., Dec. 1943, p. 1177.)

- Dec. 22. In order to recruit and keep workers (especially women) in war plants, with a minimum of absenteeism and of lost time during working hours, the President announced that he had requested the Chairman of the War Production Board, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, and the Chairman of the Maritime Commission to have their agencies make available necessary funds and materials for the installation in war plants of proper cafeterias, rest rooms, toilets, and locker facilities. (Source: White House Press release of Dec. 22.) On December 3, the Women's Advisory Committee of the War Manpower Commission had strongly recommended "the wider development of in-plant counseling services designed to assist women employees on personal and job adjustments problems." (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4471.) On December 7, the War Manpower Commission announced that each of its area directors would be instructed to assign a staff member to assist in the provision of adequate plant and community facilities and services wherever they are lacking. (Source: PM-4479.)

The Secretary of Labor on October 12 reported—on the basis of a survey developed by the Department of Labor in consultation with the War and Navy Departments, the Maritime Commission, and the WPB, and based on American industrial experience during the last and the current war—that better physical working conditions would correct current difficulties in meeting war production schedules which are blamed chiefly on manpower shortages. (Source: Office of War Information, Department of Labor, OWI-2586.)

- Dec. 23. The President, by Executive order, added to the War Manpower Commission the Director of Selective Service and one representative of the Office of Defense Transportation. The Maritime Commission was given joint representation with the War Shipping Administration. (Source: Federal Register, vol. 8, p. 17319 and vol. 7, p. 10177.)
- Dec. 23. The President approved a joint resolution extending the life of the Commodity Credit Corporation (with its food-subsidy powers) until February 17, 1944. (Source: Public Law No. 219.)
- Dec. 23. The President by Executive order established the Selective Service System as a separate agency (distinct from the War Manpower Commission but to consult with it). To the Director of Selective Service the President delegated his functions, powers, and duties under the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940. (Source: Federal Register, vol. 8, p. 17319, Executive Order No. 9410.)
- Dec. 23. The War Manpower Commission announced that under an agreement with unions in the building and construction trades, representatives of these unions will act as referral agents in the transfer of construction workers from area to area. This agreement was designed "to effect the fullest utilization of the experience and skills of workers released from employment by the current decline in construction." All recruiting and referrals must be in accordance with the applicable stabilization program and the policies and regulations of the Commission. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4489.)
- Dec. 24. Some 150,000 steel workers (those whose contracts expired on this day) stopped working. On December 7 the United Steelworkers of America had petitioned the War Labor Board to issue an order directing some 500 steel companies to execute extension contracts continuing the existing agreement until a new one could be made with retroactive provisions to the date of expiration of the old agreement. The Board disagreed on December 22 and no order was issued (the industry members maintained that the

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steelworkers were not entitled to a wage increase under the "Little Steel" formula, so that there was no question of retroactivity; the labor members objected to the proviso of the public members that retroactive wage increases would have to conform to the wage-stabilization program.)

On December 27, however, the National War Labor Board, in accordance with the telegram addressed by the President on December 26 to certain of the parties in the dispute, issued an order to the steel employers and workers, directing them to continue uninterrupted production until their differences were finally resolved, with the understanding that the final wage adjustments would be computed and applied retroactively to the date of the termination of the old contract. The President had stressed that the wage adjustments would have to conform to the wage-stabilization program. Philip Murray, president of the United Steelworkers of America, in response to the President's telegram, directed the directors and representatives of the steelworkers to urge the workers to return to work in conformity with the no-strike policy of the union. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-1192.) By December 28, most of the idle steelworkers had returned to their jobs. (Source: New York Journal of Commerce, Dec. 29, p. 3.)

- Dec. 24. The War Manpower Commission announced the adoption of a policy of consulting labor as well as management in its formulation of recommendations for the more effective utilization of workers. Under this policy the more than 600 consultants and occupational analysts of the Bureau of Manpower Utilization "would, in the future, propose no plans for better utilization of plant forces until the views of the unions involved had been obtained." Thus, a more productive administration of the 48-hour workweek was anticipated. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4491.)

- Dec. 27. The President ordered the Secretary of War to take over the possession and operation of the railroads. (For summary of Government action, see p. 319, this issue.) (Source: Federal Register, vol. 8, p. 17395, Executive Order No. 9412.)

On January 4, 1944, the President established a Special Emergency Board of three members from the Railway Labor Panel (1) to consider the unsettled claims for wage adjustments (mainly overtime pay) of the nonoperating railway employees and (2) to report their recommendations to him within 30 days. (Source: Federal Register, vol. 9, p. 239, Executive Order No. 9413.)

- Dec. 30. The Office of Labor Production of the WPB and the War Manpower Commission announced an operating agreement for cooperation in requesting the National War Labor Board to consider certain wage cases. Two types of action are provided under the terms of the agreement: (1) The War Labor Board may be requested to expedite its decision in an urgent case, and (2) a case may be certified to the NWLB as involving "the critical needs of war production." (Source: Office of War Information, War Production Board, War Manpower Commission, OWI-2814.) On December 17 the NWLB, in order to speed up consideration of petitions for review of regional war labor board decisions, had announced the creation of two full-time tripartite appeals committees to make recommendations to it regarding the disposition of the petitions. The Board also established its tripartite review committee on a permanent basis, to make recommendations on the cases in which it retains original jurisdiction. (Source: Office of War Information, NWLB, B-1177.)

- Dec. 30. The OPA made public a 20,000-word statement it had filed with the House Committee to Investigate Executive Agencies, answering 26 specific charges made by this Committee in its Second Intermediate Report. The OPA especially justified its statutory power to suspend the allocation of rationed commodities to violators of ration orders. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-3741.)

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

February 1944

Child Labor and Child Welfare

Behind the child labor headlines: Annual report of the National Child Labor Committee, for the year ending September 30, 1943. By Gertrude Folks Zimand. New York, 1943. 35 pp.; mimeographed.

The effect of the war on child-labor legislation during 1943. (In *The Child*, U. S. Children's Bureau, Washington, November 1943, pp. 69-73; also reprinted.)

Which jobs for young workers? No. 8—Advisory standards for the aircraft industry. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, 1943. 11 pp. Free.

California program for the care of children of working parents. Sacramento, California State Department of Education, 1943. 125 pp., bibliography, plans. (Bulletin, Vol. XII, No. 6.)

Street trades permits and public exhibition permits [for minors], Wisconsin, year 1942. Madison, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, 1943. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

Cooperative Movement

Cooperatives in America: Their past, present and future. By Ellis Cowling. New York, Coward-McCann, Inc., 1943. 206 pp. Rev. ed. \$2.50.

Contains chapters on the historical development of the cooperatives in Great Britain, and a detailed account of the growth of cooperatives in the United States. Although only one chapter is entitled "Consumers' cooperatives," in reality the entire book deals with this type of associations.

Consumers' cooperatives in housing projects. By Nancy Leberman and Dorothy Gazzolo. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, Management Division, 1943. 20 pp.; mimeographed. (Notes on management practice, No. 16.) 25 cents.

General discussion of cooperative possibilities among the residents of large-scale housing projects, and of how to organize and run cooperatives, with a case history of cooperative activities in one large Chicago housing project.

Methods and costs of distribution—Part 1: Important food products; summary and conclusions. Washington, Federal Trade Commission, 1943. 17 pp.

Gives summary statistics of cost of distribution in the various trade groups handling different kinds of important food products. In 1939 the distribution expenses of cooperative wholesale grocers took 5.87 cents per dollar of net sales, whereas those of old-line wholesale grocers took 9.65 cents. Among the retailers, cooperatives had expenses of 19.50 cents per dollar of net sales, retail grocery chains 20.62 cents, and independent retailers 22.58 cents.

Social trends in the cooperative-insurance movement in the United States. By Harry C. Harmsworth. (In *Sociology and Social Research*, Los Angeles, September-October 1943, pp. 37-46. 60 cents.)

Relates to insurance associations in the consumers' cooperative movement, including certain farmers' associations (such as the Ohio Farm Bureau Cooperative Insurance Associations) which are affiliated with the Cooperative League of the U. S. A.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

Ley de México sobre las cooperativas de consumo. By Hugo Rangel Couto. (In *Investigación Económica*, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Escuela Nacional de Economía, Vol. 3, No. 2, México, D. F., 1943, pp. 155-193.)

Summary of Mexican legislation through November 13, 1942, on consumers' cooperatives. In addition to the general provisions contained in the Commercial Code of 1889 and the laws of 1927, 1933, and 1938, the article cites other laws dealing with tax exemption; governmental supervision; monopolies; agricultural, students', and industrial cooperatives; banking facilities for cooperatives; and the consumers' cooperative association of public employees.

Economic and Social Problems

Government and business tomorrow: A public relations program. By Donald R. Richberg. New York, Harper & Bros., 1943. 194 pp. \$2.50.

The author discusses the differences in opinions and interests that create industrial strife. He also describes the common interests and the distinctive responsibilities of management and labor as a basis of understanding and agreement. The view is expressed that unless private management accepts the responsibility of providing opportunities for the employment of all willing workers there will be an increase in public control and finally a resort to public management of major industries.

The social aspects of a public investment policy. By D. Christie Tait. (In *International Labor Review*, Montreal, January 1944, pp. 1-18. 50 cents.)

Labor and the new economic policy. By Eleanor Hawarden. Johannesburg, South African Institute of Race Relations, 1942. 18 pp. (New Africa pamphlet No. 3.) 1s.

Commentary on the third interim report of the Industrial and Agricultural Requirements Commission of the Union of South Africa, which reflects an economic policy of plenty and not scarcity.

The Union's burden of poverty. Johannesburg, South African Institute of Race Relations, 1942. 44 pp. (New Africa pamphlet No. 1.) 1s.

Presented in two parts: An economic and social policy for the Union with special reference to the African people, by J. D. Rheinalt Jones; Suggestions for the improvement of the economic conditions of urban African workers, by R. F. Alfred Hoernlé.

Education and Training

How to train workers quickly: A wartime manual for training men and women. By Glenn Gardiner. New York, Elliott Service Co., 1943. 62 pp. 45 cents.

Job methods training program aid. Washington, U. S. War Department, Army Service Forces Headquarters, Industrial Personnel Division, 1943. 19 pp. (Civilian personnel information bull. No. 1.) Free.

A working plan for training miners, developed by the Anaconda Copper Mining Co., Butte, Mont. Washington, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Training, 1943. 42 pp., illus.

Yearbook of workers' education, 1926-1943. New York, Labor Education Service, Inc., 1943. 64 pp.

The various articles deal with different aspects of the workers' education movement.

Employment and Unemployment

Can unemployment be prevented? By Sir William Beveridge. (In *New York Times Magazine*, New York, December 19, 1943, pp. 9, 28.)

The writer discusses some of the proposed unemployment remedies which will not help to solve the problem of unemployment after the war, and suggests in general terms the direction in which a solution should be sought. He also tells why he is certain there is a solution, although he is not yet ready to offer a specific plan.

Employment trends in relation to the post-war economy of the Denver area. Denver, Colo., 1943. 14 pp., chart. (University of Denver reports, Vol. 19, No. 2; issued concurrently as publication No. 2 of the Denver Regional Association.)

Industrial distribution of the North Carolina classified labor force, 1940; employment and earnings, 1940-1942. By S. F. Campbell. Raleigh, Unemployment Compensation Commission, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1943. 22 pp.; mimeographed.

Railroad manual on employment stabilization. Washington, Association of American Railroads, 1943. 72 pp.

Before August 1943, railroads were not included in the employment-stabilization program of the War Manpower Commission. New regulations, effective August 16, 1943, brought railroad employment fully within the stabilization program. This booklet outlines what railroads are now required to do and what they may not do about the hiring of new employees and separations from employment. As an aid in carrying out the new program and in obtaining any modifications that may seem to be desirable, railroads are urged to see that they have representation on each of the area management-labor committees.

The trend of employment and unemployment [in Ireland] in the years 1941 and 1942. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1943. 24 pp. (P. No. 6102.) 6d.

Family Allowances

The administration of family allowances for men in military service. By Harry Grossman. (In Cornell Law Quarterly, Ithaca, N. Y., November 1943, pp. 217-232.)

Abonos familiares. By Estanislau Fischlowitz. (In Revista do Serviço Público, Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público, Rio de Janeiro, June 1943, pp. 22-25; July 1943, pp. 23-29.)

Part I of this study presents a detailed analysis of Brazilian regulations of April 22, 1943, concerning family allowances. Part II discusses the origin of family allowances and gives a brief account of their establishment by law in countries other than Brazil.

Family allowances for Canada? By D. H. Stepler. (Toronto, Canadian Association for Adult Education and Canadian Institute of International Affairs, 1943. 32 pp., bibliography. (Behind the headlines, Vol. 3, No. 2.) 10 cents.

Analyzes the defects of the Canadian wage system, presents the case for family allowances, and discusses three alternatives to such grants—a living wage, allowances in "kind," and family limitation. Data on family allowances in various other countries are also included.

Food and Nutrition

Food enough. By John D. Black. Lancaster, Pa., Jaques Cattell Press, 1943. 269 pp., charts. \$2.50.

Deals with the food situation as it has developed in this war, covering military requirements, lend-lease, relief, and civilian needs, and measures which should be taken to meet these requirements.

Food and farming in post-war Europe. By P. Lamartine Yates and D. Warriner. London, New York, etc., Oxford University Press, 1943. 118 pp., maps, illus. 3s. 6d. (\$1.25).

The writers discuss farming conditions and living standards in European countries and outline a policy for the rehabilitation of Europe's peasantry.

The communal restaurant: A study of the place of 'civic' restaurants in the life of the community. London, London Council of Social Service, 1943. 36 pp. 6d.

The study, carried out in the spring and summer of 1943, describes the type of communal restaurants developed in London as a result of the war, and their financial returns, with a view to determining the place that civic restaurants might fill after the war.

The diet in Germany and the occupied countries during the second World War. By Charles G. Spicknall, M. D., and others. (In Public Health Reports, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, November 12, 1943, pp. 1669-1681. 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

The report shows the amounts of food different classes of the German population received from the outbreak of war through 1942, the diet in the occupied countries and in prisoner-of-war camps, and the diet and results of physical examinations of the American diplomats and newspaper correspondents interned at Bad Nauheim.

Handicapped Workers

Building lives and weapons. By Vera Lundquist. (In Nation's Business, Washington, December 1943, pp. 46, 48. 35 cents.)

Account of the extent to which handicapped workers are being utilized in specified establishments and localities.

Industrial homework for the physically handicapped. By George Lavos. (In Outlook for the Blind, New York, October 1943, pp. 214-218; November 1943, pp. 253-259; bibliography. 25 cents each.)

The articles deal with Federal and State controls over industrial home work. It is recommended that agencies for the handicapped should now take steps to abolish the need for exemptions to minimum-wage regulations and home-work prohibitions by carrying on adequate programs of vocational adjustment for the substandard handicapped.

Unlapped manpower: Facts and figures on employment of the physically handicapped, presented for the consideration of Federal appointing officers. Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1943. 15 pp.

Industrial Relations

The American story of industrial and labor relations. Albany, New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions, 1943. 315 pp., charts, illus.

This graphic story of industrial and labor relations in the United States has been prepared by the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions to serve as a textbook for New York high schools and to provide high-school teachers and their students with a comprehensive view of the data and the problems in the field of industrial and labor relations.

Better industrial relations for victory: Proceedings of the twenty-sixth Silver Bay Industrial Conference, Silver Bay, N. Y., July 28-31, 1943. New York, National Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations (347 Madison Avenue), 1943. 140 pp. \$1.

Among the subjects considered in the general sessions were present and future manpower problems, the importance of management-employee cooperation, and what is ahead for management and labor.

Industrialists report on their labor-management committees. Washington, U. S. War Production Board, War Production Drive Division, 1943. 38 pp.

Reports of individual companies show the varied activities of these committees.

New clauses in labor agreements. By James J. Bambrick, Jr. (In Personnel, New York, November 1943, pp. 171-181. 50 cents.)

Night work differentials in union agreements in California, 1942. San Francisco, Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Statistics and Law Enforcement, 1943. 24 pp.

WLB—what it is, how it operates. Washington, U. S. National War Labor Board, Division of Public Information, 1943. 9 pp. Free.

Works councils in New Zealand. By A. E. C. Hare. Wellington, Victoria University College, 1943. 114 pp.

A study of the history and operation of works councils in New Zealand with a brief review of their establishment in other countries.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

Report of proceedings of the 63d annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, held at Boston, Mass., October 4 to 14, inclusive, 1943. Washington, American Federation of Labor, [1943?]. 644 pp. 75 cents.

An account of this convention was published in the *Monthly Labor Review* for December 1943 (p. 1180) and reprinted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as Serial No. R. 1595.

Australian labor leader: The story of W. A. Holman and the labor movement. By H. V. Evatt. Sydney and London, Angus & Robertson, Ltd., 1942. 507 pp., illus. 8s. 6d.

In tracing the life of Holman, the author covers the general development of the political labor movement in Australia.

Report of proceedings at the 75th annual Trades Union Congress, held at Southport, [England], September 6-10, 1943. London, Trades Union Congress, 1943. 433 pp.

C. T. M., 1936-1941. México, D. F., Confederación de Trabajadores de México, [1942?]. 1184 pp.

Compilation of documents, chronologically arranged, relating to the first 5 years of the Confederation of Mexican Workers, including its constitution, committee reports, resolutions, addresses by officials, statistics of membership, and a list of affiliated organizations. There are also accounts of the international relations of the Confederation, the founding of the Workers' University of Mexico, and certain strikes during the period 1936 to 1941.

Minimum Wage

Economic factors bearing on the establishment of minimum wages in the bakery, beverage, and miscellaneous food industries. New York, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division, 1943. 68 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Learning periods in the work glove industry. New York, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, 1943. 31 pp., charts; mimeographed. Free.

Machine stitching of work gloves was the subject of this study, made to obtain data on which to base determination of the length of time during which learners might be employed at subminimum wage rates under the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. The report presents data on earnings of learners after specified weeks of experience, and as a percentage of earnings of experienced workers, as well as data on earnings of experienced workers in 9 plants.

Report of the committee on minimum rates of wages and conditions of employment in connection with special arrangements for domestic help. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1943. 9 pp. (Cmd. 6481.) 2d.

Report of a specially appointed committee in which recommendations are made for working standards of domestic help in hospitals and similar institutions.

Negro in Industry

"Job opportunities for Negroes"—the goal of Indiana's bi-racial cooperation plan.

Prepared by Indiana State Defense Council in cooperation with Indiana State Chamber of Commerce. Indianapolis, 1943. 16 pp. (Pamphlet No. 4.)

Reports on the guiding philosophy of this voluntary self-help program, reviews the progress made in increasing employment openings for Negroes, and sets forth a policy for the basis for future work along these lines in Indiana.

Report of the [Maryland] Governor's Commission on Problems Affecting the Negro Population. Baltimore, 1943. 145 pp.

Contains reports of subcommittees dealing with education, health, employment, housing, and other problems in relation to Negroes in Maryland, a statement on the department-store situation by the chairman of the Commission, and a summary of recommendations.

Report of the [Rhode Island] Commission on the Employment Problems of the Negro. Providence, 1943. 51 pp., chart.

Findings presented concerning the socio-economic background of the families studied cover distribution as to birthplace, age, and sex; housing conditions; educational background and training; present jobs and jobs trained for; union membership; etc. Data are also given on domestic help and the placement of Negro workers by the State Employment Service.

Pension and Profit-Sharing Plans

Pension and profit-sharing plans. New York, Research Institute of America, Inc., 1943. 43 pp. \$2 (\$1 to libraries).

Analysis of deferred-compensation plans, mainly from the standpoint of the tax element, which is a decisive factor in the cost of such a plan.

Pension and profit-sharing plans—Federal income tax law and regulations and selected sections of wage and salary stabilization law. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1943. 43 pp.

Pension, bonus, and profit-sharing plans. By Esmond B. Gardner and C. Jerome Weber. New York, Chase National Bank, 1943. 92 pp.

Retirement systems for State and local government employees, 1941. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1943. 144 pp., charts. (State and local government special study No. 17—final.)

Seventeenth annual report of the Board of Trustees on the Employees' Retirement System of the Territory of Hawaii, . . . as of June 30, 1942. Honolulu, 1943. 67 pp. (Publication No. 14.)

Shows the salaries and service records of members of the system, and the service retirements of general employees, of teachers, and of firemen, policemen, and bandmen, and accident-disability retirements among the different groups.

Annual report of the Comptroller of the City of New York, for the fiscal year 1942-43. New York, 1943. 461 pp.

An appendix to the report gives statistics of receipts and disbursements for the various retirement systems for which the Comptroller is the custodian—New York City employees', teachers', and Board of Education retirement systems, and the police and fire department pension funds.

Incorporação e fusão de caixas [Brazil]. By Evaristo dos Santos. (In Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria e Comércio, Rio de Janeiro, March 1943, pp. 220-231.)

Lists the 81 retirement and pension funds and institutes of Brazil in operation on December 31, 1941.

Personnel Management

Employee handbooks. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, [1943?]. 20 pp.

How to create job satisfaction: A manpower maintenance manual for foremen. By Glenn Gardiner. New York, Elliott Service Co., 1943. 58 pp. 45 cents.

Municipal personnel practices and problems, with special emphasis on 50 Oregon cities. Eugene, Oreg., Bureau of Municipal Research and Service, University of Oregon, 1943. 23 pp.; mimeographed. (Information bull. No. 55.)

Personnel counseling—key to greater production. Washington, U. S. War Department, Civilian Personnel Division, 1943. 18 pp. (Civilian personnel pamphlet No. 1.) Free.

Although prepared as a guide in establishing and developing counseling programs in War Department installations, the functions and principles set forth in the pamphlet will, the foreword states, normally fit any installation.

Personnel management in war industries. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Bureau of Industrial Relations, 1943. 170 pp. (Bull. No. 14.) \$3.

Some of the subjects covered are selection and induction of new employees, training and upgrading manual workers, development of skills in employees, selection and development of prospective foremen, basic principles of wage and salary determination, wage stabilization and adjustment policies of the National War Labor Board absenteeism, and labor-management cooperation in war production.

Thirty-fourth annual report of the Civil Service Commission of Canada, for the year 1942. Ottawa, 1943. 23 pp.

Summarizes personnel practices and policies, and gives the text of an order in council authorizing special allowances to stenographers and stenographic training of persons already employed.

Post-War Reconstruction

Addresses on the general problem of full employment and minimum living standards, delivered at the first series of conferences of the Institute on Postwar Reconstruction of New York University, March 24 to June 2, 1943. New York, New York University, 1943. Various paging. \$2.

Bibliography on post-war planning. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Construction and Civic Development Department, August 16, 1943. 17 pp.; mimeographed.

Post-war plans of the United Nations. By Lewis L. Lorwin. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1943. 307 pp. \$2.50.

Factual report on plans that have been formulated by governmental and private groups for post-war reconstruction in their respective countries.

Discharged: A commentary on civil re-establishment of veterans in Canada. By Robert England. Toronto, Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd., 1943. 468 pp. \$5.

The author describes the measures and machinery through which civil re-establishment of Canadian discharged soldiers will be effected—medical treatment, retraining, vocational training, resumed interrupted education, employment, land settlement, social-security protection, and war pensions.

Rehabilitation of the war injured. A symposium edited by William Brown Doherty, M. D., and Dagobert D. Runes. New York, Philosophical Library, 1943. 684 pp., diagrams, illus. \$10.

The articles are classified under neurology and psychiatry, reconstruction and plastic surgery, orthopedics, physiotherapy, occupational therapy and vocational guidance, and legal aspects of rehabilitation.

Special aids for placing Army personnel in civilian jobs. Special aids for placing Navy personnel in civilian jobs. Washington, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Manpower Utilization, Division of Occupational Analysis and Manning Tables, 1943. 174 and 112 pp.

These two volumes were prepared for use in connection with the placement of demobilized Army and Navy men returning to civilian life. Civilian occupations similar to those of the Army and the Navy are listed in the respective volumes; the degree of physical activity involved and the kinds of working conditions in these occupations are shown, and additional training that would be required is indicated.

Social Security

Evolução histórica do seguro social. By Helvecio Xavier Lopes. (In Revista do Serviço Público, Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público, Rio de Janeiro, July 1943, pp. 5-14.)

The first part of this article reviews briefly the development of social insurance in various countries of the world; the second part gives an account of the growth of social insurance in Brazil, showing the legislative background of the schemes now in operation.

Social security in Czechoslovakia. By F. Němec. London, Czechoslovak Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Information Service, 1943. 20 pp., illus. (Czechoslovak documents and sources, No. 2.)

Describes the experiences of the Czechoslovak Republic in its social policy, giving the factual results of 20 years of social legislation, which endeavored to develop a system based on the collective responsibility of all citizens.

Social insurance reform in Ecuador. By F. A. López Arteta. (In *International Labour Review*, Montreal, January 1944, pp. 19-37. 50 cents.)

Account of the original scheme of social insurance in Ecuador set up by the Act of 1935, and an analysis of the revised social-insurance legislation of 1942 showing classes of persons insured, risks covered (sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, death, industrial accidents and occupational diseases, and unemployment), financial resources, and administration.

El seguro social en México. México, D. F., Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social, 1943. 533 pp., illus.

This volume reproduces the texts of the Mexican social-security law of December 31, 1942, and related regulations, legislation, and executive orders through June 24, 1943. Documents which served as bases for the law, and discussions of the relation of social security to various labor and social problems, are also included.

The Beveridge plan—where are we now? By G. D. H. Cole. London, New Statesman and Nation, 1943. 15 pp. 3d.

A summary of what the British Government has promised, and not promised, to do about the Beveridge report.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Cost-of-living adjustment of State and municipal wages. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1588; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1943.) Free.

Wage and hour manual, 1943 edition . . . A complete handbook and guide to Federal regulation of wages, hours, and child labor. Washington, Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1943. 739 pp. \$7.50.

Wages in manufacturing industries in wartime. By H. M. Douty, Robert J. Myers, Herman D. Bloch. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 28 pp. (Bull. No. 756; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, October and November 1943.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Da justiça do salário mínimo, [Brazil]. By Arnaldo Sussekkind. (In *Revista do Trabalho*, Rio de Janeiro, May 1943, pp. 8-10.)

Discussion of the living wage, family income, and legal minimum wage by occupation, with citations of laws on these subjects and some background material concerning other countries.

Annual salaries and salary increases and allowances paid to general staff nurses. By Department of Studies, National League of Nursing Education. New York, American Nurses' Association, 1943. 50 pp.

Some of the data from this study, published in the *American Journal of Nursing* for March 1943, were carried in the *Monthly Labor Review* for May 1943 (p. 986).

Second report of Nurses Salaries Committee, [Ministry of Health, Great Britain]: Salaries and emoluments of male nurses, public health nurses, district nurses, and State registered nurses in nurseries. London, 1943. 51 pp. (Cmd. 6487.) 9d.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

Cancellation of war contracts—plans and practices, 1918-1919. By J. Donald Edwards. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 79 pp.; mimeographed. (Historical study No. 65.) Free.

Conversion of metalworking industries to war production, 1939-43. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 1604; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1943.) Free.

Wartime use of part-time labor. Washington, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Reports and Analysis Service, 1943. 12 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Special course of lectures on wartime emergency orders and administrative tribunals [in Canada]. By members of the Law Society of Upper Canada. Toronto, Carswell Co., Ltd., 1943. 259 pp.

Subjects include price, rental, and wage control.

Looking ahead. Wartime speeches by Herbert Morrison. London, Hodder & Stoughton, Ltd., 1943. 247 pp. 5s.

The addresses are arranged in four groups to cover those made by the author as Minister of Supply, as Home Secretary and Minister of Home Security, to Labor Party audiences, and on the general war effort in Great Britain and future policies.

The mobilization of French workers for Germany. (In *International Labor Review*, Montreal, January 1944, pp. 38-51. 50 cents.)

Account of the forced transfer of French workers to the Reich up to the end of June 1943.

General Reports

Thirty-first annual report of the Secretary of Labor, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1943. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, 1944. 43 pp. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The Secretary of Labor summarizes briefly the work of the Department of Labor and developments in the labor field during the year under review, and presents recommendations for the improvement of labor conditions, the extension of the social-security system, and the "orderly return of the industrial population to normal peacetime ways." (The latter recommendations are reproduced in this issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*, page 331.) Following the Secretary's summary, reports on the activities of each of the several branches of the Department are given.

Directory of Connecticut manufacturing and mechanical establishments, 1942. Hartford, Department of Labor and Factory Inspection, 1943. 93 pp.

Lists names and addresses of all manufacturing and mechanical establishments employing one or more workers, including power laundries and dry-cleaning establishments. In preparing the list, the firms were grouped according to number of employees, and the employee group to which each firm belongs is shown in the list by a key letter. A summary tabulation gives the total number of employees and of male and female employees separately, by locality.

Annual report of the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Territory of Hawaii, July 1, 1942, to June 30, 1943. Honolulu, 1943. 54 pp.

Wartime work of the Department of Labor [of Canada]. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1943. 31 pp. (Supplement to *Labor Gazette*, November 1943.)

British workers in the war. By J. Kuczynski and M. Heinemann. New York, International Publishers, 1943. 64 pp. 20 cents.

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Among other data gives information on operations of Central Bank of Cooperative Institutions in Palestine, Ltd., which not only makes loans to cooperatives of various kinds but fosters sound economic and cooperative practices; on the housing activities of the Palestine Mortgage and Credit Bank, Ltd.; and on the Economic Housing Corporation, Ltd.

Labor protection problems in wartime in Sweden. By H. Starland. (In *Industrial Safety Survey*, International Labor Office, Montreal, July-September 1943, pp. 89-95. 50 cents.)

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Covers the fourth year of war and shows the changes in labor and other conditions. Reconstruction is touched upon.

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